

English Grammar Series.

BOOK IV.

IDIOM, GRAMMAR, AND SYNTHESIS

A MANUAL OF PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL
ENGLISH FOR HIGH SCHOOL AND
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

IN FIVE PARTS

PART I.—ACCIDENCE, ANALYSIS, SYNTAX, AND PUNCTUATION.

PART II.—IDIOM IN WORDS, PHRASES, AND CONSTRUCTIONS.

PART III.—THE TRANSFORMATION AND SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

PART IV.—WORD-BUILDING AND DERIVATION.

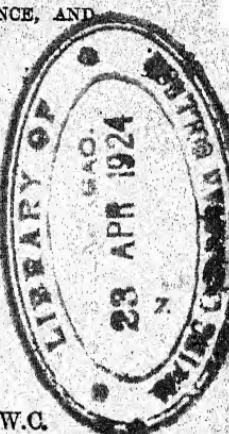
PART V.—FIGURES OF SPEECH, POETIC DICTION, AND PROSODY,

WITH APPENDICES

ON ACCENT, PRONUNCIATION, STRUCTURE OF SENTENCE, AND
STRUCTURE OF PARAGRAPH.

BY

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PUBLISHER'S NOTICE

OWING to the increasing importance attached to Pronunciation and Composition in the High Schools and Colleges of India, four Appendices have been added to Nesfield's *Idiom, Grammar, and Synthesis*, Book IV. The first deals with Accent, chiefly on the lines laid down by Professor Skeat in his *Principles of English Etymology*. The second deals with the Pronunciation of English vowels and consonants, showing not only how the vowels and consonants are to be sounded, but how each sound is symbolised and spelt. The system followed in this Appendix is that on which all the best authorities on Phonetics are agreed, viz. Dr. Sweet, Professor Skeat, Miss Laura Soames, and Dr. Murray (in the introduction to the Oxford Dictionary). The third Appendix describes the principles of Sentence-structure, showing—(a) the order to be observed in the collocation of phrases and clauses; (b) the distinction between sentences Periodic and Loose, with a comparison of their respective merits; (c) the methods to be followed for preserving the Unity of Sentences.

The fourth and last Appendix deals with the principles of Graph-structure, Paragraph-unity, and Paragraph-analysis. The system followed in the preparation of the third and fourth Appendices is mainly based on that to be found in the works of Blair, Whately, and Bain.

Nothing has been added to the price of the book on account of the additional matter thus furnished.

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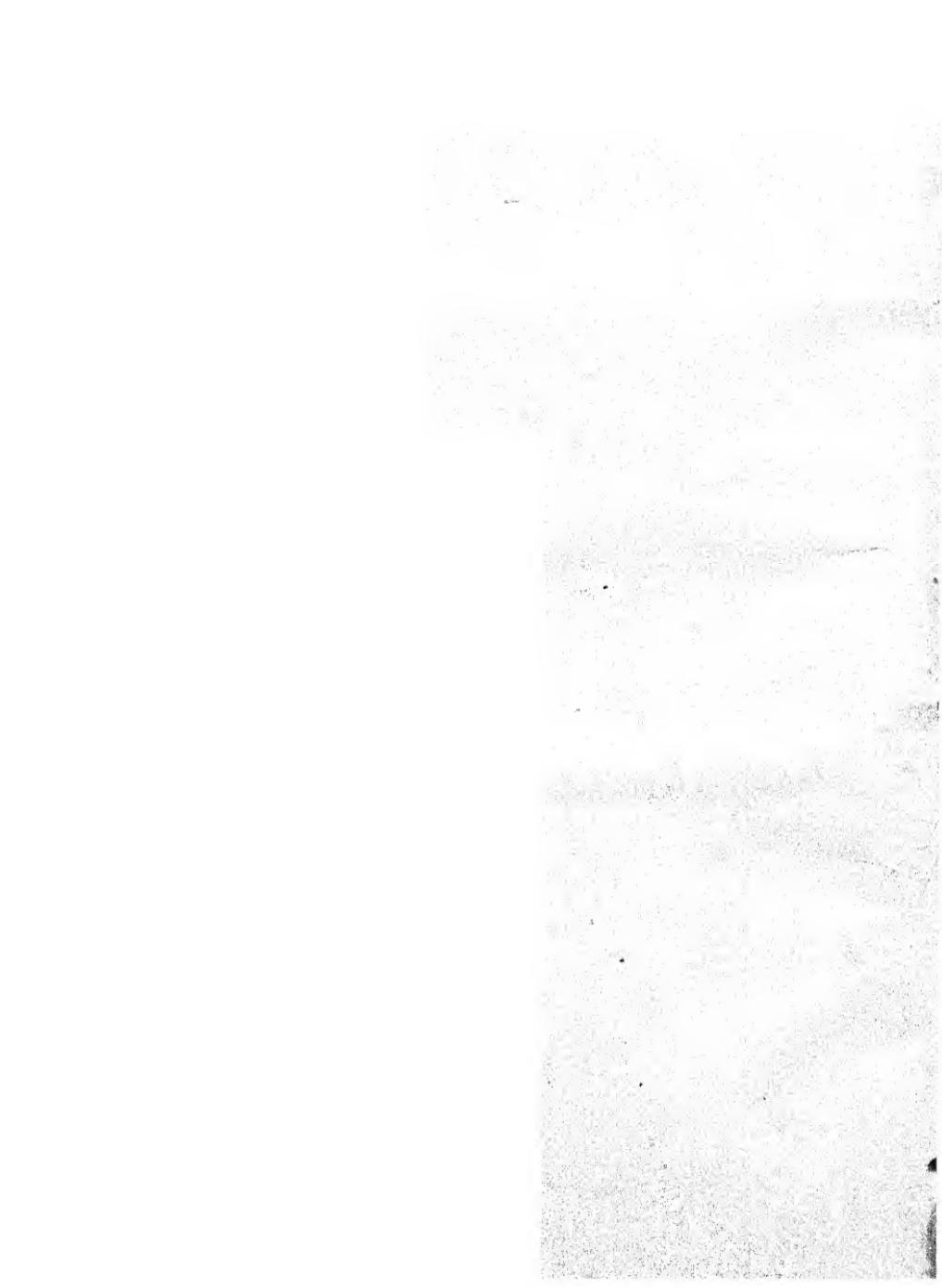
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PART I.—ACCIDENCE, ANALYSIS, SYNTAX, AND PUNCTUATION.

CHAPTER I.

ANALYTICAL OUTLINE: GENERAL DEFINITIONS.

1. A Sentence.—A combination of words that makes a *complete* sense is called a Sentence. The sense is not complete, unless something is *said* about something else.

A ship went out to sea.

2. There are five different kinds of sentences:—

(1) Those which simply affirm or deny something are called **Assertive**.

A man's success depends chiefly on himself. (*Affirmative.*)
He did not get much help from others. (*Negative.*)

(2) Those which contain some command or prohibition are called **Imperative**.

Rely chiefly on your own efforts. (*Command.*)
Do not rely much on the help of others. (*Prohibition.*)

(3) Those which inquire about something are called **Interrogative**.

Have you finished that task?

(4) Those which express some wish are called **Optative**.
God save the queen.

(5) Those which express some feeling of the mind in connection with the assertion made are called **Exclamatory**.

What a foolish fellow you have been!

3. Subject and Predicate.—The word or words denoting the person or thing about which something is said are called the **Subject** of the sentence.

A ship went out to sea.

The word or words which say something about the person or thing denoted by the Subject, as "went out," are called the **Predicate**.

Hence no sentence can be made without a Subject and a Predicate. These two things are necessary to make a *complete* sense.

4. A Phrase.—A combination of words that makes sense, but not a *complete* sense, is called a **Phrase**.

On the river. Through thick and thin. A bird in the hand.

5. A Clause.—A sentence which is *part of a larger sentence* is called a **Clause**.

This is the house | where we live.

Here "where we live" is a sentence, because it has a subject "we" and a predicate "live." Similarly "this is the house" is a sentence, having "this" for its subject and "is" for its predicate. But both are *parts of a larger sentence*, and hence each of them is called a **clause**.

6. Nouns.—A word used for *naming* anything is called a **Noun**, as "ship," "fox," "house," "man." Hence a noun is the *naming* word. (The words "noun" and "name" are the same at bottom, but differently spelt.)

7. Pronouns.—A word used *instead of a noun* is called a **Pronoun**.

A ship went out to sea, and *she* had all her sails up.

Here the pronoun "she" is used instead of the noun "ship," and saves its being mentioned twice. Hence a pronoun is a *substitute* word, and its chief use is *to save the repetition of a noun*.

8. Adjectives.—If I wish to *qualify* (that is, add something to the meaning of) a noun, the word used for such a purpose is called an **Adjective**.

A *fine* ship went out to sea.

The word *Adjective* means "adding," and is so called because it adds something to the meaning of a noun.

9. Verbs.—Words used for *predicating* (that is, saying something about some person or thing) are called **Verbs**.

A fine ship *went out* to sea.

Here the word which predicates or says something about a ship is "went out." This is therefore a verb; and thus *the predicate of a sentence must be a verb, or it must at least contain one*.

10. Preposition with its Object.—In the phrase "to sea," the word "to" is called a **Preposition**. This word

expresses the relation in which the thing denoted by "sea" stands to the event denoted by "went out."

The noun, pronoun, or other noun-equivalent that follows the preposition is called its *Object*.

The use of a preposition, then, is to show the relation in which the person or thing denoted by its *Object* stands to something else.

11. **Conjunctions.**—A Conjunction is a *joining* word. It joins words and phrases to one another, or one sentence to another sentence.

(a) He made himself mean *and* of no reputation.

(b) May he live long *and* (may he) die happily.

In (a) the adjective "mean" is joined to the phrase "of no reputation" by the conjunction "and."

In (b) the sentence "may he live long" is joined by the same conjunction to the sentence "may he die happily."

12. **Adverbs.**—These, like adjectives, are *qualifying* words. An adjective, as we have shown, qualifies a *noun*; an adverb qualifies *anything except a noun or pronoun*.¹

That *very* fine ship has *already* sailed *half* through the Channel.

Here "very" is an adverb qualifying the adjective "fine"; "already" is an adverb qualifying the verb "has sailed"; and "half" is an adverb qualifying the preposition "through."

13. **Interjections.**—These are not words connected, as other words are, with other parts of a sentence; but mere sounds standing by themselves and thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

My son, *alas!* is not industrious.

Here "alas" is a sound thrown into the sentence to express regret.

14. **The Parts of Speech defined.**—Words are divided into different kinds or classes according to the purpose that they are used for. The different kinds of words are called **Parts of Speech**. They are eight in number, and have been described already:—

(1) A **Noun** is a word used for naming some person or thing.

¹ In other Grammars an adverb is defined to be "a word used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs." The inadequacy of this definition, which excludes Prepositions and Conjunctions from the qualifying power of adverbs, is further shown in § 222.

(2) A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent.

(3) An Adjective is a word used to qualify a noun.

(4) A Verb is a word used for saying something about some person or thing.

(5) A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or noun-equivalent to show in what relation the person or thing denoted by the noun stands to something else.

(6) A Conjunction is a word used to join words or phrases together, or one clause to another clause.

(7) An Adverb is a word used to qualify any part of speech except a noun or pronoun.

(8) An Interjection is a word or sound thrown into a sentence to express some feeling of the mind.

15. The Articles.—The words "a" and "the" are called Articles. "The" is called the *Definite Article*, because it particularises a noun. "A" or "an" is called the *Indefinite*, because it does not particularise a noun, but generalises it.

The articles are not a distinct part of speech, but merely adjectives. "A" or "an" is an abbreviated form of the adjective "one"; while "the" is an abbreviated form of "this," "that," "these," "those."

16. Finite Verb : Number and Person.—Any part of a verb that can be used as the *Predicate of a sentence* is called Finite.

The word "finite" means "limited." A finite verb is so called, because it is limited to the same Person (*First, Second, or Third*) and to the same Number (*Singular or Plural*) as its Subject.

(a) I see him.

(b) They see him.

In both sentences the form of the verb "see" is the same. But in (a) the verb is in the First person, because its Subject "I" is in the First person, and in the Singular number, because its Subject is Singular. Similarly in (b) the verb is in the Third person, because its Subject "they" is in the Third person, and Plural, because its Subject is Plural.

17. Parts of a Verb not finite.—There are some parts of a verb, which are not finite, that is, are not limited to any particular Number or Person, because they cannot be used with a Subject or be made the Predicates of a sentence.

Such parts are three in number:—(1) the **Infinitive**

mood, as "I wish *to retire*"; (2) a **Participle**, as "a *retired* officer"; (3) a **Gerund**, as "I think of *retiring*."

18. **Double Parts of Speech.**—Besides the eight parts of speech shown in § 14, there are three more which must be called double, or two parts of speech combined in one:—

(1) **A Participle.**—This is a verb and adjective combined.

A retired officer lives next door.

The word "retired" is a verb, because it is part of the verb "retire." It is also an adjective, because it qualifies the noun "officer." Hence a participle may be called a verbal adjective.

(2) **A Gerund.**—This is a verb and noun combined.

I think of *retiring* soon from service.

Here "retiring" is a verb, because it is part of the verb "retire." It is also a noun, because it is the object to the preposition "of." Hence a gerund has been called a verbal noun.

(3) **A Relative Pronoun or Adverb.**—A Relative pronoun such as *who*, *which*, etc., or a Relative adverb such as *where*, *when*, etc., is a pronoun or adverb combined with a conjunction.

This is the house *where* we live.

Here "where" is an adverb, because it qualifies the verb "lives." It is also a conjunction, because it joins the two sentences. Hence, relative adverbs have been sometimes called conjunctive adverbs.¹ Similarly, relative pronouns have been called conjunctive pronouns.

19. **Apposition of Noun with Noun.**—A noun is said to be in apposition with another noun, or with a pronoun, when it refers to the same person or thing:—

Noun.—Philip, *king* of Macedon, was father to Alexander the Great.

Pronoun.—I, the *man* you were looking for, am here.

20. **Apposition of Sentence with Noun.**—A sentence can be placed in apposition with a noun to describe what is denoted by the noun; see § 276 (e).

The rumour *that you were coming* was generally believed.

21. **Apposition of Noun with Sentence.**—A noun can be in apposition with a sentence or with some implied

¹ "Conjunctive adverb" is the name given to these words by Mason in *English Grammar*, p. 105, § 262. I have found it more convenient, however, to retain the name "relative adverb."

noun, which (if it were expressed) would denote the action of the verb.

He killed his prisoners,—*a barbarous act*. (Here “act” is in apposition with the implied noun, the *killing* of prisoners.)

22. Forms of Subject.—The Subject to a sentence must be either a noun or a noun-equivalent. The principal forms in which a Subject can be expressed are as follows:—

- (a) Noun : *A ship* went out to sea.
- (b) Pronoun : *He* (some one previously named) was convicted.
- (c) Infinitive : *To err* (=error or proneness to error) is human.
- (d) Gerund : *Sleeping* is necessary to health.
- (e) Phrase : *How to do this* puzzles all of us.
- (f) Clause : *Whoever was caught* was sent to jail.

23. Transitive Verbs : Verb and Object.—A verb is Transitive, if the action or feeling denoted by the verb does not stop with itself, but is directed towards some person or thing. The word or words denoting such person or thing are called the Object to the verb.

That snake bit *the man*.

24. Forms of Object.—The various forms in which the Object can be expressed are the same as those in which the Subject can be expressed. See § 22.

- (a) Noun : That snake bit *the man*.
- (b) Pronoun : That snake bit *him*.
- (c) Infinitive : We desire *to succeed* (=success).
- (d) Gerund : He loves *riding*.
- (e) Phrase : We do not know *how to do this*.
- (f) Clause : We do not know *what he wants*.

25. Factitive Verbs : Complement.—Those Transitive verbs which require not only an Object (as all Transitive verbs do), but also some other word or words to make the predication complete, are called Factitive.

Such word or words are called the Complement.

He put the school (object) *into good order* (complement).

That grief drove him (object) *mad* (complement).

They made him (object) *laugh* (complement).

There is no sense in saying “he put the school,” “that grief drove him,” “they made him”; hence each verb must have a Complement.

26. Intransitive Verbs.—A verb is Intransitive, if the action or feeling denoted by the verb stops with itself, and is not directed towards anything else.

Fish *swim*. Rivers *flow*. All animals *die*.

27. **Intransitive Verbs with Complement.**—But Intransitive verbs, though they do not require an Object, may require a Complement, as some Transitive verbs also do.

Such verbs are called **Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication.** They are also known as **Copulative.**

He became *a good scholar.* Sleep is *necessary to health.*

28. **Absolute use of Verbs.**—A verb is said to be used absolutely, when it is not grammatically related to the rest of the sentence :—

(a) **Participle** (further explained in § 285 and § 300):—

The sun having set, all went home. (With Noun.)

Supposing we are late, the door will be locked. (Without Noun.)

(b) **Infinitive Mood** (further explained in § 195 and § 196):—

To think that he should have told a lie! (Simple.)

I am,—to speak plainly,—much displeased with you. (Gerundial.)

(c) **Imperative Mood** (further explained in § 184):—

A few men,—say twelve,—may be expected shortly.

29. **Introductory Adverb.**—When the subject to an *Intransitive* verb is placed *after* its verb, the verb is usually introduced by the adverb “*there*.” In this relation “*there*” does not signify “in that place,” but merely serves *to introduce the verb.* It has no signification whatever.

There are some men (subject) *who never drink wine.*

There came a maiden (subject) *to my door.*

30. **Kinds of Phrases.**—The following kinds of phrases should be distinguished from one another :—

(a) **Adverbial phrase**, or one which does the work of an adverb :—

I hope you will work better in future.

Bind him hand and foot, and take him away.

(b) **Prepositional phrase**, or one which does the work of a preposition. (Such phrases end in a simple preposition.)

In the event of our father's death, we shall be left poor.

He worked hard for the sake of a prize.

(c) **Conjunctival phrase**, or one which does the work

of a conjunction. (Such phrases end in a simple conjunction.)

I am tired *as well as* hungry.

He took medicine *in order that* he might recover.

(d) **Absolute Participle phrase**; see § 285.

The sun having set, they all went home.

(e) **Interjectional or exclamatory phrase**; see § 254:—
Well to be sure! *For shame!* *Good heavens!*

31. Accent, Emphasis.—When we lay stress upon a *single syllable*, we call it **Accent**.

Sup-ply', sim'-ply: *reb'-el* (noun), *re-bel'* (verb).

When we lay stress upon an *entire word*, we call it **Emphasis**.

Silver and gold have I none,

I appeal from Philip drunk to Philip sober.

CHAPTER II.—NOUNS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF NOUNS.

32. Noun defined.—A Noun is a word used for naming some person or thing (§ 14).

33. Nouns are of five different kinds:—

I. Concrete	Proper	1
	Common	2
	Collective	3
	Material	4
II. Abstract	5

Proper Nouns.

34. A Proper Noun denotes *one particular* person or thing as distinct from every other; as *James* (a person), *Gulistán* (a book), *Lucknow* (a city), *India* (a country).

Note 1.—The writing of a Proper noun should always be commenced with a capital letter.

Note 2.—A word or phrase is sometimes added to a proper noun to prevent ambiguity of reference. Thus we say, “*Alexander the Great*,” or “*St. Paul*,” or “*Boston in America*,” to show which Alexander, or which Paul, or which Boston is meant: for many different persons or places might be called by these names.

Common Nouns.

35. A Common Noun denotes no one person or thing in particular, but is *common to any and every person or thing of the same kind*; as "man," "book," "country."

Thus, *man* does not point out any particular man, such as James, but can be used for any and every man. *Book* does not point out any particular book, such as *Gulistan*, but can be used for any and every book. *Country* does not point out any particular country, such as India, but can be used for any country in any part of the world.

36. A Proper Noun is said to be "*used as a Common Noun*," when it denotes (a) some rank or office, or (b) some class of persons or things.

(a) Such words as *Cesār*, *Caliph*, *Sultan*, *Khedive*, *Czar*, etc., are used as Common nouns, because they denote persons holding a certain rank or office: thus we can speak of "the twelve Cesars," "the first four Caliphs," "the Sultan of Turkey," "the Czar of Russia."

(b) A Proper noun becomes a Common noun, when it denotes a class of persons or things and is used in a descriptive sense. "He is *the Newton of the age*,"—that is, the greatest astronomer of the age.

Collective Nouns.

37. A Collective Noun denotes a *group* or *collection* of *similar individuals*, considered as one complete whole.

For instance, there may be *many sheep* in a field, but only *one flock*. Here "sheep" is a Common noun, because it may stand for any and every sheep; but "flock" is a Collective noun, because it stands for all the sheep at once, and not for any one sheep taken separately.

38. Every Collective Noun is also a kind of Common Noun.

Thus the term "flock" may stand for many different flocks (or groups of sheep); "class" for many classes (or groups of students).

39. **Nouns of Multitude.**—A distinction is made between a Collective Noun and a Noun of Multitude:—

(a) A Collective noun denotes *one undivided whole*; and hence the verb following is singular (§ 16).

The jury *consists* of twelve persons.

(b) A noun of Multitude denotes the *individuals* of the group; and hence the verb is plural, although the noun is singular (§ 16).

The jury (the men on the jury) *were* divided in their opinions.

Nouns of Material.

40. A Noun of Material denotes the *matter* or *substance* of which things are made.

Thus "sheep" is a Common noun; but "mutton" (or the flesh of sheep) is a Material noun.

41. The same word can be a Material noun or a Common noun according to the sense.

Fish live in water. *Fish* is good for food.

In the first sentence the noun denotes individual fish or fishes, and is therefore a Common noun. In the second it denotes the matter of which the bodies of fish are made, and is therefore a Material noun.

Abstract Nouns.

42. An Abstract Noun denotes some *quality*, *state*, or *action*, apart from anything possessing the quality, etc.

Quality.—Cleverness, height, humility, roguery, colour.

State.—Poverty, manhood, bondage, pleasure, youth.

Action.—Laughter, movement, flight, choice, revenge.

The four kinds of nouns previously described all relate to objects of *sense*, that is, to things which can be seen, touched, heard, smelt, or tasted; and all such nouns are called **Concrete** nouns. But an Abstract noun relates to *qualities*, *states*, etc., which cannot be seen or touched, etc., and which are thought of *apart from* any object of sense.

For example.—We know that a stone is *hard*. We also know that iron is *hard*. We also know that a brick is *hard*. We can therefore speak of *hardness* apart from stone, or iron, or brick, or any other object having the same quality. "Abstract" means "drawn off" (abstracted in thought) from the object. Hence *hardness* is an abstract noun; while *stone* or *brick* or *iron* is a concrete noun.

43. The same word may be an Abstract noun or a Common noun, according to the purpose for which it is used.

When an Abstract noun is "used as a Common or Concrete noun," it may denote (a) the *person* possessing the quality, or (b) the *thing* to which the action, state, or quality belongs:—

(a) Examples of Persons.

<i>Justice</i>	{ 1. The quality of being just	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. A judge, or one who administers justice	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Beauty</i>	{ 1. The quality or state of being beautiful	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. A person possessing beauty	<i>Concrete</i>

<i>Authority</i>	{ 1. The power or right to command . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. A person possessing authority . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Nobility</i>	{ 1. The quality of being noble . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. Those who are of the class of nobles . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Witness</i>	{ 1. Evidence or testimony . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. One who gives the evidence . . .	<i>Concrete</i>

(b) *Examples of Things.*

<i>Judgment</i>	{ 1. The act or quality of judging . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. The verdict given by the judge . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Sight</i>	{ 1. The art or faculty of seeing . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. The thing seen : "a fine sight" . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Speech</i>	{ 1. The faculty of speaking . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. The speech delivered: the word spoken . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Wonder</i>	{ 1. The feeling of wonder or surprise . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. The wonderful event or object . . .	<i>Concrete</i>
<i>Kindness</i>	{ 1. The quality of being kind . . .	<i>Abstract</i>
	2. The kind thing done . . .	<i>Concrete</i>

44. The Gerunds and the Simple Infinitives of verbs (§ 195) are in fact, though not in form, kinds of Abstract nouns. The following sentences all mean the same thing:—

Service is better than idleness. (*Abstract Noun.*)

Serving is better than idleness. (*Gerund.*)

To serve is better than idleness. (*Infinitive Mood.*)

45. An Abstract noun is used as a Proper noun, when it is personified,—that is, when it is spoken of as an individual person. It must then be commenced with a capital letter, as Proper nouns are.

He is the favoured child of *Fortune*.

Let not *Ambition* mock their useful toil.

46. There are two ways in which a Proper, Material, or Abstract noun can be used as (or changed into) a Common noun:—(a) by putting an article ("a" or "the") before it; (b) by putting it into the plural number.

Proper Noun.

Common Nouns.

Daniel was a learned Jew. { *A Daniel* come to judgment.
There are more *Daniels* than one.

Material Noun.

Mango is my favourite fruit. { Give me *the mango* in your hand.
Give me one of your *mangoes*.

Abstract Noun.

Justice is a noble quality. { He is a *justice* of the peace.
There are four *justices* present.

Point out the kind or use of each of the nouns occurring below:—

Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, was conqueror of Persia. A man ignorant of the arts of reading, writing, and ciphering is, in point of knowledge, more like a child than a man. The proper study of mankind is man. Cows are as fond of grass as men are of milk, or bears of honey. Health is one of the greatest blessings that a man or woman can hope to enjoy in this bodily existence. The Czar of Russia, although he is lord of the eastern half of Europe and the northern half of Asia, besides being master of a huge army and a large fleet, cannot live in peace and safety with his own subjects, and cannot leave his own palace without fear. Arjun was the bravest of the Pandavas. Kálidás was the Homer of India; but his fame is not so widely known throughout the world as that of Homer is. Almost every Hindu belongs to some caste; but the bondage of rules founded on caste is in a state of decline. A shower of rain does not give so much trouble to a traveller as a fall of snow. The eleven of our school defeated an eleven selected from among the best cricketers of the town. Most kinds of food are not conducive to health, unless they are mixed with a certain amount of salt. The love of money is the root of all evil; but by a proper use of money men can do much good. He has done me so many kindnesses, that I shall always remember his name with gratitude. Cleon is a justice by rank and office, but he is not a genius in the science of law. Speech is one of the highest faculties with which man is endowed; but speech without goodness and purity may prove an evil rather than a blessing to its possessor. Daniel was a Jewish prophet. He is a Daniel in foresight. By the waters of Babylon we sat down and wept. There is no slate in the rocks of these hills. Give him the slate. Witchcraft is the art practised by a witch or wizard. Fair Science frowned not on his humble birth, but Melancholy marked him for her own.

§ 2.—SUBSTITUTES FOR A NOUN.

47. The following kinds of words or combinations of words can be used as substitutes for a Noun; see §§ 22, 24:—

(a) A Pronoun:—

Your horse is white; mine is a black *one* (=horse).

(b) An Adjective used as a Noun or with some noun understood:—

The blind (*men*) receive their sight.

The just (=justice) is higher than *the expedient* (=expediency).

(c) An Infinitive verb:—

He desires *to succeed* (=success).

(d) A Gerund:—

He was fond of *sleeping* (=sleep.)

(e) A Phrase :—

No one knew *how to do this* (=the method of doing this).

(f) A Noun-clause ; that is, a clause which does the work of a noun ; (for the definition of "clause" see § 5).
Who steals my purse (=the stealer of my purse) steals trash.

§ 3.—GENDER.

48. What in nature is called the difference of sex is in grammar called the difference of Gender. The following are therefore the different kinds of genders :—

- (1) Nouns denoting *male* animals Masculine.
- (2) Nouns denoting *female* animals Feminine.
- (3) Nouns denoting animals of *either sex* Common.
- (4) Nouns denoting things of *neither sex*, } Neuter.
 that is, things without life

49. All Material and Abstract nouns must be of the Neuter Gender, since they denote things without life,— things of *neither sex*. All Collective nouns must be Neuter, since they denote groups, and groups as such have no life. Nouns can therefore be classified according to gender in the following way :—

Gender.	Nouns.
Masculine or Feminine	} Proper and Common nouns.
Common (or Either Gender)	} Common nouns.
Neuter (or Neither Gender)	} Proper nouns. Common , , Collective , , Material , , Abstract , ,

50. There are three different ways by which a Masculine noun is distinguished from a Feminine :—

- I. By a change of word ; as *bull*, *cow*.
- II. By adding a word ; as *he-goat*, *she-goat*.
- III. By adding *ess* to the Masculine ; as *priest*, *priestess*.

I. *By a change of word:*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid (or spinster)	Horse (or stallion)	mare
Boar	sow	Husband	wife
Boy	girl	King	queen
Brother	sister	Lord	lady
Buck	doe	Man	woman
Bull (or ox)	cow	Miltier (fish)	spawner
Bullock (or steer)	heifer	Nephew	niece
Cock	hen	Papa	mamma
Colt	filly	Ram (or wether)	ewe
Dog	bitch (or slut)	Sir	madam (or dame)
Drake	duck	Sire	dam
Drone	bee	(father of colt)	(mother of colt)
Earl	countess	Sloven	slut
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar (or monk)	nun	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Swain	nymph
Gentleman	lady	Uncle	aunt
Hart	roe	Wizard	witch

Note.—There are some Feminines that have no Masculines:—*blonde, brunet, dowager, dowdy, drab, prude, shrew, siren, termagant, vixen.*

II. *By adding a word:*(a) *By adding a prefix.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Billy-goat	nanny-goat
Buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-goat	she-goat
Jack-ass	she-ass
Man-servant	maid-servant

(b) *By a change of suffix.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Grand-father	grand-mother
Great-uncle	great-aunt
Land-lord	land-lady
Pea-cock	pea-hen
Servant-man	servant-maid
Washer-man	washer-woman

III. *By adding ess to the Masculine:*(a) *By adding ess to the Masculine without any change in the form of the Masculine:*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Author	author-ess	Patron	patron-ess
Baron	baron-ess	Peer	peer-ess
Count	count-ess	Poet	poet-ess
Giant	giant-ess	Priest	priest-ess
God	god-ess	Prince	princ-ess
Heir	heir-ess	Prior	prior-ess
Host	host-ess	Prophet	prophet-ess
Jew	Jew-ess	Shepherd	shepherd-ess
Lion	lion-ess	Viscount	viscount-ess

(b) By adding *ess*, and omitting the vowel of the last syllable of the Masculine :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Actor	actr-ess	Negro	negr-ess
Benefactor	benefactr-ess	Porter	portr-ess
Conductor	conductr-ess	Songster	songstr-ess
Director	directr-ess	Tempter	temptr-ess
Enchanter	enchantr-ess	Tiger	tigr-ess
Hunter	huntr-ess	Traitor	trair-ess
Instructor	instructr-ess	Votary	votar-ess

(c) By adding *ess* to the Masculine in a less regular way :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Master (boy)	miss (girl)
Duke	duchess	Mr.	Mrs.
Emperor	empress	Marquis }	marchioness
Governor	governess	Marquess }	
Lad	lass	Murderer	murderess
Master (teacher, etc.)	mistress	Sorcerer	sorceress

51. The following modes of distinction between Masculine and Feminine are exceptional :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bridegroom	bride	Fox	vixen
Widower	widow		(“Vixen” as Fem. of “fox” is now obsolete.)

52. Foreign Feminines :—

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Administrator	administratrix	Hero	heroine
Beau	belle	Prosecutor	prosecutrix
Czar	czarina	Signor	signora
Don	donna	Sultan	sultana
Executor	executrix	Testator	testatrix

53. Double Feminines.—The two examples of this are *songstress* and *seamstress*.

Originally *ster* was a Feminine suffix, as it still is in “spinster.” But the Feminine force of *ster* in “songster” and “seamster” has been lost, and so the Feminine form is now shown by changing *er* into *ess*.

54. The following are examples of Nouns in the Common gender :—

Parent—father or mother.

Relation—male or female relation.

Friend—enemy—male or female friend or enemy.

Cousin—male or female cousin.

Bird—cock or hen.

Peacock—peacock or peahen.

Fowl—cock or hen.
 Child—boy or girl, son or daughter.
 Deer—stag or hind.
 Fallow-deer—buck or doe.
 Baby (or infant)—male or female baby (or infant).
 Servant—man-servant or maid-servant.
 Monarch—king or queen, emperor or empress.
 Person—man or woman.
 Pupil—boy student or girl student.
 Orphan—boy or girl without parents.
 Pig—boar or sow.
 Sheep—ram or ewe.
 Elephant—male or female elephant.
 Cat—male or female cat.
 Rat—male or female rat.
 Mouse—male or female mouse.
 Fox—male or female fox.
 Cattle—cows alone, or cows and bulls mixed.
 Swine—sows alone, or sows and boars mixed.
 Spouse—husband or wife.
 Foal—colt or filly.
 Calf—bullock or heifer.

55. There are some Masculine and some Feminine nouns, which, though they have a distinct form for the Feminine and Masculine respectively, can be used as nouns of the Common gender, provided that no question arises as to whether the animal named is a male or a female:—*dog, luck, horse, bee, goose, colt*.

That is a fine little *colt*.

That *horse* of yours is a splendid stepper.

A *goose* is a much bigger bird than a *duck*.

56. Personified Things.—Inanimate objects or qualities are sometimes spoken of as if they were persons. They are then said to be "personified" (see § 45). Such things are regarded as male or female, and hence the nouns expressing them can be Masculine or Feminine.

A noun thus made to denote a person is commenced with a capital letter, as if it were a Proper noun.

As a general rule things remarkable for strength, greatness, superiority, etc., are regarded as males; as the Sun, June, Summer, Winter, Ocean, Thunder, Wind, Death, War, Majesty.

On the other hand, states or qualities expressed by Abstract nouns, and whatever is supposed to possess beauty, fertility, grace, inferiority, etc., are regarded as females; as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Charity, Peace, Humility, Jealousy, Pride, Fame, Modesty, Liberty, Flattery, etc. The Moon is regarded

as Feminine, because she is an inferior luminary to her supposed brother, the Sun, from whom her rays are borrowed.

There is nothing in the *form* of these personifications which can show the gender. The gender is disclosed by the pronouns *he* or *she*, whenever such pronouns happen to be used instead of the nouns.

A ship, though the noun is not commenced with a capital, is always spoken of as *she*. The same is often said of a railway train.

§ 4.—CASE.

57. **Case defined.**—The *relation* in which a noun stands to some other word, or the *change of form* by which this relation is indicated, is called its *Case*.

58. There are three Cases in English,—the *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective*.

But the *Possessive* is the only case that is *now* indicated by a case-ending or *change of form*. The other cases have lost their case-endings, and are indicated only by grammatical relation.

59. When a noun is used as the *subject* to a verb or for the sake of *address*, it is said to be in the *Nominative case*.

Rain falls. (*Nominative of Subject.*)

Are you coming, my friend? (*Nominative of Address.*)

60. When a noun is the *object* to a verb or to a preposition, it is said to be in the *Objective case*.

The man killed a rat. (*Object to Verb.*)

The earth is moistened by rain. (*Obj. to Prep.*)

61. The *Possessive case* is so called, because it usually denotes the *possessor* or *owner*. It is formed by adding ' (which is called *apostrophe s*) to the noun; as—

Singular—man's. | *Plural*—men's.

N.B.—The old inflection for the *Possessive case* was *es*. When the *e* was omitted, as it now always is, the absence of the *e* was indicated by the comma or apostrophe; as *moon, moones, moon's*.

62. There are three kinds of instances in which the apostrophe *s* is omitted:—

(a) After all plural nouns ending in *s*; as—

Horses' tails; the birds' nests; the dogs' kennels.

(b) Whenever the last syllable of a Singular noun begins and ends with *s*; as—

Moses' laws. (But we must say *Venus's beauty; James's hat, etc.*)

(c) Whenever the last syllable of a Singular noun ends with *s* or *ce*, and the noun is followed by "sake"; as—

Conscience's sake; for *goodness's* sake. (But we must say—a *mouse's* skin; *James's* smile.)

63. Nouns denoting *inanimate* objects are seldom put in the Possessive case. Thus we cannot say, "the *house's* roof"; "the *town's* street"; "the *garden's* fruit"; *Bengal's* seaport"; "human *life's* brevity"; "the *cottage's* door."

Possession in such cases is indicated by the preposition "of"; or the noun can sometimes be used as if it were an adjective.

The flowers of summer = the *summer* flowers.

The door of the cottage = the *cottage* door.

The light of a lamp = a *lamp* light.

64. The Possessive case was once used with any kind of noun; but it is now restricted to those shown below:—

(1) Nouns denoting *persons*; as—

Topal's book; *a man's* foot. (But we cannot say "a library's book," "the mountain's foot," since "library" and "mountain" are inanimate objects.)

(2) Nouns denoting any kind of *living* thing other than man; as—

A *cat's* tail; a *horse's* head; a *bird's* feathers.

(3) Nouns denoting *personified* things; as—

Fortune's favourite; *Sorrow's* tears; *England's* heroes.

(4) Nouns denoting time, space, or weight; as—

Time.—A *day's* journey; a *month's* holiday; three *weeks'* leave; a *year's* absence; at six *months'* sight; three *days'* grace.

Space.—A *boat's* length; a *hand's* breadth; a *hair's* breadth; a *razor's* edge; a *stone's* throw; a *needle's* point.

Weight.—A *pound's* weight; a *ton's* weight.

(5) Nouns signifying certain dignified objects; as—

The *court's* decree; the *sun's* rays; the *moon's* crescent; *nature's* works; the *earth's* creatures; the *soul's* delight; *heaven's* will; the *law's* delays; *truth's* triumph; the *mind's* eye; the *ocean's* roar; *duty's* call; the *river's* bank; the *country's* good.

Note.—The Possessive is also used in a few familiar phrases, in which it has been retained for the sake of shortness—

Out of *harm's* way; at his *wit's* end; for *mercy's* sake; he did it to his *heart's* content; the *ship's* passengers; at his *fingers'* ends; he got to his *journey's* end; the *boat's* crew.

65. Possessive Case in Apposition.—When one Possessive

case is in Apposition with another (§ 19), the apostrophe is added only to one of the nouns, not to both.

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.

66. Possessive Case in Phrases.—The 's may be added to the last word of a phrase, when the phrase is regarded as a Compound noun and denotes some person or persons.

The Government of India's order.

My son-in-law's house.

The Duke of Sutherland's death.

67. "Of" before a Possessive.—This occurs in such phrases as "that book of James's," "that handsome face of my father's."

Three explanations have been offered:—(1) "Of my father's" is an ellipse for "of my father's faces." Here "faces" is the Object to "of." This is good grammar, but bad sense. (2) "Of my father's" is a Double Possessive. The most probable explanation. (3) The "of" denotes apposition, as in "the continent of Asia," which means "the continent, namely Asia." Similarly the phrase "that face of my father's" can mean "that face, namely my father's (face)."

The ambiguity of the preposition "of" is sometimes removed by placing a Possessive noun after it. Thus, "a picture of the Queen" means a picture presenting a likeness of the Queen. But "a picture of the Queen's" means a picture of which the Queen is owner.

68. A noun denoting some kind of place or building is sometimes omitted after a noun in the Possessive case.

I will see you at the barber's (shop).

We found him studying hard at his tutor's (house).

§ 5.—NUMBER.

69. When one thing is spoken of, the noun is Singular; when two or more things are spoken of, the noun is Plural.

The only kinds of nouns that (strictly speaking) admit of being pluralised are Common and Collective nouns.

But Proper, Material, and Abstract nouns can also be put in the Plural number, when they are used as Common nouns (§ 46).

70. The general rule for forming the Plural number of a noun is by adding *s* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Hand	hands	House	houses

But if the noun ends in *s*, *x*, *sh*, or *ch*, the Plural is formed by adding *es* to the Singular; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Glass	glasses	Brush	brushes
Box	box-es	Bench	bench-es

71. If the noun ends in *y* and the *y* is preceded by a consonant, the Plural is formed by changing the *y* into *ies* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Duty	duties	Army	armies
Fly	flies	Lady	ladies

But if the final *y* is preceded by a vowel (as in *ay*, *ey*, or *oy*), the Plural is formed by simply adding *s* to the Singular (in accordance with the general rule given in § 70) :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Day	days	Monkey	monkeys
Play	plays	Toy	toys
Key	keys	Boy	boys

Note.—Nouns ending in *quy* form the Plural in *ies*, because *qu* (= *kw*) is regarded as a double consonant; as, *colloquy*, *colloquies*.

72. If the noun ends in *o*, and the *o* is preceded by a consonant, the Plural is generally formed by adding *es* to the Singular :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Cargo	cargoes	Mango	mangoes
Hero	heroes	Potato	potatoes
Buffalo	buffaloes	Echo	echoes
Motto	mottoes	Tornado	tornadoes
Negro	negroes	Volcano	volcanoes

But all words ending in *oo*, all words ending in *io*, *eo*, or *yo*, and some words ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, form the Plural in *s*, and not in *es* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Bamboo	bamboos	Grotto	grottos
Cuckoo	cuckoos	Ilao	halos
Portfolio	portfolios	Memento	mementos
Embryo	embryos	Proviso	provisos
Cameo	cameos	Tiro	tiros
Seraglio	seraglios	Piano	pianos
Hindoo	Hindoos	Canto	cantos
Curio	curios	Solo	solos

There are a few nouns ending in *o* which form the Plural both in *s* and *es* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Calico	calicos or calicoes
Mosquito	mosquitos or mosquitoes
Portico	porticos or porticoes

73. If the noun ends in *f* or *fe*, the Plural is generally formed by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Wife	wives	Calf	calves
Knife	knives	Half	halves
Life	lives	Myself	ourselves
Sheaf	sheaves	Shelf	shelves
Leaf	leaves	Wolf	wolves
Thief	thieves	Elf	elves

But there are some nouns ending in *f* which form the Plural by simply adding *s* (in accordance with the general rule given in § 70) :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Reef	reefs	Wharf	wharfs
Chief	chiefs	Dwarf	dwarfs
Roof	roofs	Turf	turfs
Hoof	hoofs	Gulf	gulfs
Proof	proofs	Cliff	cliffs
Scarf	scarfs	Grief	griefs

There are at least three nouns ending in *fe* which form the Plural by simply adding *s* :—

Safe—safes ; strife—strifes ; fife—fifes.

74. There are eight nouns which form the Plural by a change of the inside vowel :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Louse	lice
Foot	feet	Mouse	mice
Goose	geese	Dormouse	dormice

There are four nouns which form the Plural in *en* or *ne* :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Ox	oxen	Brother	brethren (or brothers)
Child	children	Cow	kine (or cows)

75. A compound noun generally forms the Plural by adding *s* to the principal word :—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Father-in-law	fathers-in-law	Maid-servant	maid-servants
Son-in-law	sons-in-law	Foot-man	foot-men
Mother-in-law	mothers-in-law	Washer-man	washer-men
Daughter-in-law	daughters-in-law	Knight-errant	knight-errants
Step-son	step-sons	Coat-of-mail	coats-of-mail
Step-daughter	step-daughters	Court-martial	courts-martial
Hanger-on	hangers-on	Commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
Looker-on	lookers-on		
Passer-by	passers-by		

There are four compound nouns which take a double Plural:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man-servant	men-servants	Lord-justice	lords-justices
Woman-servant	women-servants	Knight-Templar	Knights-Templars

In a phrase like "Miss Brown" two different forms are used for the plural. We may either say "the Miss Browns" or "the Misses Brown."

76. Foreign Plurals.—These are some Plurals which have been borrowed direct from foreign nouns:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
	(Latin)		(Greek)
Agendum	agenda	Analysis	analyses
Addendum	addenda	Basis	bases
Datum	data	Crisis	crises
Dictum	dicta	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Effluvium	effluvia	Oasis	oases
Ovum	ova	Parenthesis	parentheses
Erratum	errata	Thesis	theses
Memorandum	memoranda	Phenomenon	phénomena
Medium	media	Criterion	criteria
Stratum	strata (or strata) (or stratum)		(Italian)
Alumnus	alumni	Bandit	banditti (or bandits)
Focus	foci (or focuses)		(French)
Fungus	fungi	Beau	beaux (or beans)
Genius	genii	Bureau	bureaux
Radius	radii	Monsieur	messieurs
Terminus	termini (or terminuses)	Madam	mesdames
Formula	formulae (or formulas)		(Hebrew)
Genus	genera	Cherub	cherubim (or cherubs)
Stamen	stamina	Seraph	seraphim (or seraphs)
Axis	axes		
Index	indices		
Appendix	appendices		
Series	series		
Species	species		
Apparatus	apparatus		

77. There are some nouns, Singular in form, which are used in a Plural sense.

Cattle.—These cattle are mine.

Vermi.—These vermin do much harm.

Swine.—These swine must be kept out of the garden.

People.—These people have returned home.

Note.—When "people" is used in the sense of "nation," the Plural is "peoples." The use of "swine" as Sing. is now almost obsolete.

78. There are some nouns which are either not used at all in the Plural, or are used in the Plural in some special sense.

Abuse.—He gave me much abuse (reproach) for no fault.

Information.—He gave me all the information he had.

Alphabet.—He learnt the alphabet before he could read.

Furniture.—His house is full of good furniture.

Offspring.—These four children are my offspring.

Poetry.—He wrote very good poetry (poems).

Scenery.—These hills are lovely scenery.

Issue.—He had no issue (child or children).

Folk.—The old folk have gone.

Note.—When "abuse" is used in the sense of *wrong use*, the plural is "abuses." When more than one language is spoken of, the plural of "alphabet" is "alphabets." When "issue" means *result*, its plural is "issues."

79. There are some nouns which have the same form for the Plural as for the Singular.

<i>a) Names of animals.</i>	<i>(b) Nouns of Number.</i>	<i>(c) Weight and Money.</i>
Deer	Yoke (of oxen)	Stone (weight)
Sheep	Brace (of birds)	Hundredweight
Fish, rarely fishes	Dozen	Pice
Salmon.	Score	

This deer, these deer. That sheep, those sheep. That fish, those fish (rarely fishes). Those salmon. Nine brace of birds. Four yoke of oxen. Ten dozen books. Three score men. He weighs ten stone and a half. That box weighs three hundredweight. Three pice (Indian money).

80. Some nouns, which take the Plural form at ordinary times, retain the Singular form to express some specific quantity or number.

A ten-rupee note. A twelvemonth. A three-foot rule. An eight-day clock. A six-year old horse. A fortnight (which is a contraction of "fourteen nights"). Forty head of cattle. Twelve pound weight.

81. There are some nouns which have two forms in the Plural,—each form with a separate meaning of its own.

<i>Brother</i>	{ Brothers, sons of the same mother. Brethren, members of the same society.
<i>Cloth</i>	{ Cloths, kinds or pieces of cloth. Clothes, articles of dress.
<i>Die</i>	{ Dies, stamps for coining. Dice, small cubes used in games.
<i>Genius</i>	{ Geniuses, men of genius or talent. Genii, fabulous spirits of the air.
<i>Index</i>	{ Indexes, tables of contents. Indices, signs used in algebra.

Staff	{ Staves, sticks or poles. Staffs, departments in the army.
Shot	{ Shot, little balls discharged from a gun. Shots, discharges; as, "he had two shots."

82. Nouns which have one meaning in the Singular and another in the Plural :—

Singular.	Plural.
Advice, counsel.	Advices, information.
Beef, flesh of ox.	Beefs, cattle, bulls and cows
Compass, range or extent.	Compasses, an instrument.
Good, benefit.	Goods, movable property.
Iron, a metal	Irons, fetters made of iron.
Physic, medicine.	Physics, natural science.
Return, coming back.	Returns, statistics.
Vesper, evening.	Vespers, evening prayers.
Sand, a kind of matter.	Sands, a tract of sandy land.
Force, strength or energy.	Forces, army.
Air, atmosphere.	Airs, assumed demeanour.

83. Nouns which have two meanings in the Plural against one in the Singular :—

Singular.	Plural.
Colour, colour.	Colours
Custom, habit.	Customs
Letter { 1. Of alphabet. 2. Epistle.	Letters
Pain, suffering.	Pains
Effect, result.	Effects
Manner, mode or way.	Manners
Number, as in counting.	Numbers
Part, portion.	Parts
Spectacle, anything seen.	Spectacles
Premise, { a statement or pro- position.	Premises
Quarter, a fourth part.	Quarters

{ 1. Kinds of colour.
2. Flag of regiment.

{ 1. Habits.
2. Toll or tax.

{ 1. Of alphabet.
2. Epistles.
3. Learning.

{ 1. Sufferings.
2. Trouble, care.

{ 1. Results.
2. Goods and chattels.

{ 1. Modes, ways
2. Behaviour.

{ 1. As in counting.
2. Poetry.

{ 1. Portions.
2. Abilities.

{ 1. Things seen.
2. Glasses to help the sight.

{ 1. Propositions.
2. Surroundings to a house.

{ 1. Fourth parts.
2. Lodgings.

84. True Singulars used as Plurals.

By a "True Singular" we mean that the final *s* is part of the original Singular noun, and not a sign of the Plural.

Such nouns, though Singular by etymology, are liable to be considered Plural on account of the final *s*; and two of them are now always used as if they were Plural.

Summons.—This noun is still correctly used as a Singular; as, "I received *a* summons to attend"; "this summons reached me to-day." The Plural form is *summonses*.

Alms.—"He asked *an* alms" (New Testament). But now the word is generally used as if it were Plural; as, "I gave alms to the beggar, and for *these* he thanked me."

Eaves.—The edge or lower borders of the roof of a house. The word is now always used as a Plural; as, "The eaves *are* not yet finished."

Riches.—This too is really a Singular; as, "In one hour is so great riches come to naught" (New Testament); but now on account of the final *s*, this noun is always used as a Plural; as, "Riches *do* not last for ever."

85. True Plurals used as Singulars.

By "True Plurals" are meant nouns in which the final *s* is really a sign of the Plural.

Amends.—This is sometimes used as a Singular and sometimes as a Plural; as, "He made *an* amends"; "I accept *these* amends."

Means.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, "By *this* means."

News.—This is now almost always used as a Singular; as, "The news *runs* apace."

Innings.—This is a word used in cricket to denote the turn for going in and using the bat. It is *always* used as a Singular; as, "We have not yet had *an* innings"; "our eleven beat the other by *an* innings and ten runs."

Gallows.—The frame-work from which criminals are hanged. This noun is used as a Singular; as, "They fixed up *a* gallows."

Odds.—A word used in betting, to denote the difference of one wager against another. "We gave him *a* heavy odds against ourselves." Sometimes this noun is used as a Plural.

86. Of the following nouns some seldom, others never, take a Singular. These are for the most part names of things, which imply plurality or consist of more parts than one:—

- (a) Instruments or tools:—*arms* (in the sense of weapons), *bellows*, *jetters*, *pincers*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *shears*, *snuffers*, *tweezers*.
- (b) Articles of dress:—*breeches*, *drawers*, *pantaloons*, *trappings*, *trousers*, *hose*.
- (c) Kinds of disease:—*measles*, *mumps*, *staggers*, *small-pox* (originally spelt as *small-pocks*).

- (d) Parts of the body :—*bowels, entrails, intestines, giblets.*
- (e) The names of sciences or subjects ending in *ics*; such as *physics, politics, ethics, metaphysics, etc.*
(These nouns are Plural, because the corresponding Greek words, from which they have been transliterated, are Plural.)
- (f) Miscellaneous words; such as *ashes, annals, assets, dregs, embers, chattels, lees, nuptials, obsequies, shambles, statistics, victuals, hustings, proceeds, thanks, tidings, downs, suds, wages, chaps, auspices, billiards, environs, thews, meus, contents, credentials, etc.* (The phrase "a living wage" has come into use.)

Parsing Model for Nouns.

- (a) *Boys learn grammar in the class.*

Boys—Common noun, plural number, masculine gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "learn."

Learn—Verb.

Grammar—Abstract noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "learn."

In—Preposition, having "class" for its object.

The—Adjective qualifying "class."

Class—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

- (b) *Cow's milk is often drunk by young children.*

Cow's—Common noun, singular number, feminine gender, possessive case.

Milk—Material noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is drunk."

Often—Adverb of time, qualifying the verb "is drunk."

Is drunk—Verb.

By—Preposition, having "children" for its object.

Young—Adjective qualifying "children."

Children—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "by."

- (c) *The flock of sheep is eating grass in James's orchard.*

The—Adjective qualifying "flock."

Flock—Collective noun, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case, subject to the verb "is eating."

Of—Preposition, having "sheep" for its object.

Sheep—Common noun, plural number, common gender, objective case, after the preposition "of."

Is eating—Verb.

Grass—Material noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the verb "is eating."

In—Preposition, having "orchard" for its object.

James's—Proper noun, singular number, masculine gender, possessive case.

Orchard—Common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, after the preposition "in."

CHAPTER III.—ADJECTIVES.

§ I.—THE KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

87. **Adjective defined.**—An Adjective is a word used to qualify a noun (§ 14).

In parsing an adjective this is the definition invariably used, and it is therefore convenient to retain it. But it needs explanation. An adjective, as we know, denotes a property of some kind or other. When we say that it qualifies or modifies a noun, we mean that it *restricts* the application of the noun to such persons or things as possess the property denoted by the adjective.

Every adjective, therefore, has a *restrictive* force; and it might be defined as “*a word used to restrict the application of a noun.*”¹

88. There are altogether six different kinds of Adjectives:—

- (1) **Proper:** describing a thing by some *Proper noun*.
- (2) **Descriptive:** showing *of what quality* or *in what state* a thing is.
- (3) **Quantitative:** showing *how much of* a thing is meant.
- (4) **Numeral:** showing *how many* things or *in what order*.
- (5) **Demonstrative:** showing *which* or *what* thing is meant.
- (6) **Distributive:** showing that things are taken *separately* or *in separate lots*.

Proper Adjectives.

89. Proper Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as are included within the scope of some Proper name. (A Proper adjective must begin with a capital letter.)

The *Indian* plains = the plains of India.

A *Chinese* pilgrim = a pilgrim from China.

The *Turkish* empire = the empire of the Turks.

The *Gangetic* plain = the plain watered by the Ganges.

The *English* language = the language of England.

¹ This is an abridged form of the definition given by Mason, who, in *English Grammar*, p. 37, § 88, defines an adjective thus:—“An adjective is a word which may limit (=restrict) the application of a noun to that which has the quality, the quantity, or the relation which the adjective denotes.”

Descriptive Adjectives:—Quality or State.

90. Descriptive Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as possess the *quality* or are in the *state* denoted by the adjective.

A brave boy ; a sick lion ; a tame cat ; a large field ; a black horse ; an industrious student ; a careful workman.

Quantitative Adjectives:—Quantity or Degree.

91. Quantitative Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such things as are of the *quantity* or *degree* denoted by the adjective.

The chief adjectives of this class are—*Much, little ; no or none ; some, any ; enough or sufficient ; all or whole, half.*

He ate *much* (a large quantity of) bread.

He ate *little* (a small quantity of) bread.

He ate *no* bread. I had *none*.

He ate *some* (a certain quantity of) bread.

He did not eat *any* (any quantity of) bread.

He ate *enough* or *sufficient* bread.

He ate *all* (the *whole* quantity of) bread.

A half holiday is better than *none*.

Note.—“*No*” is used when the noun that it qualifies is expressed, “*None*” is used when the noun is understood.

92. Adjectives of Quantity are always followed by a *Singular* noun ; and this noun must always be either a noun of *Material* or an *Abstract* noun ; as “*much bread*” (noun of *Material*) ; “*much pain*” (a high degree of pain, *Abstract* noun).

Note.—It is idiomatic to speak of a *quantity* of matter (*Material* noun), and a *degree* of some quality (*Abstract* noun). Hence adjectives of Quantity have also been called adjectives of Degree.

Numeral Adjectives.

93. Numeral Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to such persons or things as are of the *number* or are in the *serial order* denoted by the adjective.

Numeral Adjectives are subdivided into two main classes :—

I. Definite. II. Indefinite.

94. Definite numerals denote some *exact* number.

Those which show *how many* things there are (as *one*, *two*, *three*, *four*, etc.) are called *Cardinals*.

Those which show the *serial order* in which a thing stands (as first, second, third, etc.) are called **Ordinals**.

Those which show *how often* a thing is *repeated* are called **Multiplicative**.

<i>Cardinals.</i>	<i>Ordinals.</i>	<i>Multiplicatives.</i>
One	first	one only, single, simple
Two	second	twofold, double
Three	third	threefold, treble, triple
Four	fourth	fourfold, quadruple (four times one)
Six	sixth	sixfold (six times one)
Seven	seventh	sevenfold (seven times one)

95. Indefinite numerals denote number of some kind without saying precisely what the number is:—

All, some, enough, no or none; many, few; several, sundry.

All men are mortal. *Some* men die young.

No men were present. *Ten* men will be *enough*.

Many men are poor. *Few* men are rich.

Several men came. *Sundry* men went away.

A Definite numeral can be made Indefinite by placing the word *some* or *about* before it:—

Some twenty men (=about twenty men, twenty men *more or less*) were present.

96. The words "some," "enough," "all," "no or none," are adjectives of *Number* or adjectives of *Quantity*, according to the sense.

If the noun qualified by such words is either *Material* or *Abstract*, the adjective belongs to the class of *Quantity*, as has been explained in § 92. But if the noun is a *Common noun* (or one used as a *Common noun*), and capable therefore of being in the *Plural* number, the adjective belongs to the class of *Numeral*:—

<i>Quantitatives.</i>	<i>Numerals.</i>
<i>Much</i> ; he had much bread.	<i>Many</i> ; he had many loaves of bread.
<i>Little</i> ; he had little bread.	<i>Few</i> ; he had few loaves of bread.
<i>Enough</i> ; he had enough bread.	<i>Enough</i> ; he had loaves enough.
<i>Some</i> ; he had some bread.	<i>Some</i> ; he had some loaves of bread.
<i>No</i> ; he had no bread.	<i>No</i> ; he had no loaves of bread.
<i>All</i> ; he had all the bread.	<i>All</i> ; he had all the loaves of bread.
<i>Any</i> ; have you had any bread?	<i>Any</i> ; did you bring any loaves?

Demonstrative Adjectives.

97. Demonstrative Adjectives restrict the application of a noun to those persons or things that are intended to be *pointed out* by the adjective.

The word *Demonstrative* means "pointing out."

98. Adjectives of this kind are subdivided (as Numeral adjectives are) into two main classes:—

I. Definite.

When a person or thing is pointed out *exactly*, as "this man," the adjective is called a Definite Demonstrative.

When it is pointed out in a certain sense, but *not exactly*, it is called an Indefinite Demonstrative:—

Definite.		Indefinite.	
Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
The	the	A, an	nil.
This	these	One, any	any
That, yon, yonder	those, yon, yonder	A certain	certain
Such	such	Such	such
The same, or self-same	the same, or self-same	Some	some
The other	the other	Another, any other	other, any other

Demonstrative adjectives are few in number, and all of them are given in the above list.

99. The adjective "the" is generally called the Definite Article, and "a" or "an" is called the Indefinite Article (§ 15).

An is used before a vowel or silent h; as—

An apple; *an* egg; *an* ink-bottle; *an* heir; *an* hour; *an* honest man; *an* ox.

A is used before a consonant, before u sounded as *yoo*, and before o sounded as *wu*.—

A kite; *a* cart; *a* bottle; *a* useful thing; *a* unit; *a* one-eyed man.

Even before an aspirated h we use *an*, provided the accent is on the second syllable:—thus, we say "*a* his-to-ry," because here the accent is on the first syllable "*his*"; but we say "*an* his-tor-i-cal account," because here the accent is on the second syllable "*tor*."

Distributive Adjectives.

100. Distributive Adjectives restrict the application of a noun by showing that the persons or things denoted by the noun are taken *singly*, or in *separate lots*.

101. There are four Adjectives of this class:—*each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

(a) *Each*.—This means one of *two* things or one of any *number exceeding two*.—

The two men had *each* a gun.
The twenty men had *each* a gun.

(b) **Every.**—This is never used for one of two, but always for some number *exceeding two* :—

Every man (out of the *twenty* present) had a gun.

Note.—“Every” is a stronger word than “each,” and means “*each without exception*” :—“all the individuals of a group, taken singly.”

“Every six hours” and similar expressions.—This means every *period or space of six hours*, six hours being taken collectively as *one period of time* :—

He came *every five hours* (=at the close of every space of five hours).

“Every other.”—This means *every second* or *each alternate*; as—

He was attacked with fever *every other day* (=on every second day).

(c) **Either.**—This has two meanings—(1) *one of two*, or (2) *each of two*—that is, *both*.

(1) You can take *either* side; that is, one side or the *other*.

(2) The river overflowed on *either* side; that is, on both sides.

(d) **Neither.**—This is the negative of “either,” and signifies “neither the one nor the other” :—

“You should take *neither* side”; that is, neither this side nor that, neither the one side nor the other.

§ 2.—THE TWO USES OF ADJECTIVES.

102. There are two different ways in which an Adjective can be used—(a) the *Attributive*, and (b) the *Predicative*.

(a) *Attributive use.*—An adjective is used attributively, when it qualifies its noun *directly*, so as to make a kind of compound noun :—

A *lame* horse. A *noble* character.

All true adjectives can be used attributively. But we cannot say “an *asleep* man,” because “*asleep*” and similar words are not adjectives, but adverbs (§ 236, 2).

(b) *Predicative use.*—An adjective is used predicatively, when it qualifies its noun *indirectly*—through the verb or predicate going before.

That horse went *lame*. His character is *noble*.

An adjective so used is a form of Complement to the verb *going* there (§ 25), because it completes what the verb left unsaid.

§ 3.—SUBSTITUTES FOR ADJECTIVES.

103. Words that restrict a noun in the same way as an adjective would restrict it, are substitutes for an adjective :—

(1) A Participle (or Verbal adjective, § 18) :—

A fading flower. A fallen tree.

(2) An Adverb with some participle understood :—

The then (reigning) king. The down (going) train.

(3) A Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective :—

A river fish (=a fish living in rivers).

A bathing place (=a place used for bathing).

(4) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case :—

My book. Their friendship. My son's teacher.

(5) A Verb in the Infinitive mood :—

A chair to sit on. Water to drink.

(6) A Preposition with its object :—

A man of virtue (=a virtuous man).

(7) An Adjective clause ; (see clause defined in § 5).

The book that you lent me will not be lost.

§ 4.—COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

104. Most adjectives of Quality, two adjectives of Quantity, viz. *much* and *little*, and two adjectives of Number, viz. *many* and *few*, have degrees of comparison.

All other adjectives of Quantity and Number, all Proper, Demonstrative, and Distributive adjectives, and a few Descriptive adjectives of such kind as *blue*, *square*, *circular*, *solar*, *lunar*, *oblong*, *annual*, *monthly*, *vegetable*, *mineral*, *milky*, *golden*, etc., cannot, from the kind of meaning contained in them, have degrees of comparison.

105. The degrees of comparison are three in number—the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The Positive denotes the simple quality ; as, “*a beautiful horse.*”

The Comparative denotes a higher degree of the quality ; as, “*a more beautiful horse.*” This is used when *two* things of the same class are compared together. Comparatives are followed by “*than.*”

The Superlative denotes the highest degree of the quality : as, “*the most beautiful horse.*” This is used when *one* thing is compared with *all other* things of the same class.

106. In all adjectives of *more than two syllables*, and in most adjectives of two syllables, the Comparative is formed

by adding "more" and the Superlative by adding "most," as in the examples already given.

107. But adjectives of one syllable and some adjectives of two syllables can also form the Comparative by adding *er* or *r*, and the Superlative by adding *est* or *st* :—

(a) If the Positive ends in *two consonants*, or in a *single consonant* preceded by *two vowels*, *er* and *est* are added :—

Small	smaller	smallest
Thick	thicker	thickest
Great	greater	greatest
Deep	deeper	deepest

(b) If the Positive ends in *one consonant*, and the consonant is preceded by a *short vowel*, the final consonant is doubled when *er* and *est* are added :—

Thin	thinner	thinnest
Fat	fatter	fattest
Hot	hotter	hottest
Wet	wetter	wettest

(c) If the Positive ends in *e*, only *r* and *st* are added, and not *er* and *est* :—

Brave	braver	bravest
Wise	wiser	wisest
True	truer	truest

(d) If the Positive ends in *y*, and the *y* is preceded by a *consonant*, the *y* is changed into *i*, when *er* and *est* are added :—

Happy	happier	happiest
Dry	drier	driest

(e) If the *y* is preceded by a *vowel*, the *y* is not changed into *i* :—

Gay	gayer	gayest
Grey	greyer	greyest

108. Some adjectives form their Comparatives and Superlatives in an irregular way :—

Bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
Fore	former	foremost, first
Good	better	best
Hind	hinder	hindmost
Late	later, latter	latest, last
Little	less	least
Much (quantity)	more	most
Many (number)	more	most
Nigh	nigher	nighest, next
Old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

109. There are six words which are adverbs in the Positive degree, but adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative:—

Fore	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest
In	inner	innermost, inmost
Out	outer, utter	uttermost, utmost
Be-neath	nether	nethermost
Up	upper	uppermost

The noun "top," used as an adjective, has the Superlative form "topmost." But it has no Comparative.

110. Latin Comparatives.—All of these end in *or*, and not in *er*; and all are followed by *to* instead of *than*.

His strength	is	superior to	(greater than) mine.
His strength	is	inferior to	(less than) mine.
This event	is	anterior to	
This event	is	prior to }	(earlier than) that.
This event	is	posterior to	(later than) that.
This man	is	senior to	(older than) that.
This man	is	junior to	(younger than) that.

CHAPTER IV.—PRONOUNS.

111. Pronoun defined.—A Pronoun is a word used instead of a noun or noun-equivalent (§ 7).

The usefulness of pronouns is best seen by trying to do without them:—

John saw a snake in the garden, *this* snake John thought would hurt *John*, unless *John* killed the snake with a stick, *this* stick *John* had in *John's* hand.

The nouns in italics can all be replaced by pronouns, and the sentence can be much better expressed as follows:—

John saw a snake in the garden, *which* he thought would hurt *him*, unless *he* killed *it* with a stick *which* he had in *his* hand.

The chief use, then, of Pronouns is to save the repetition of nouns.

112. Three facts follow from the above definition:—

(a) Since a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it must be itself a noun or something equivalent to a noun.

(b) Since a pronoun is intended to stand for some

noun going before, the pronoun should not as a rule be mentioned, until the noun has been mentioned.

(c) Since a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it must be of the same number, gender, and person as the noun it stands for.

113. There are four different kinds of Pronouns:—

- (1) Personal; as, *I, thou, he, she, etc.*
- (2) Demonstrative; as, *this, that, such, one, etc.*
- (3) Relative; as, *which, who, that, as, etc.*
- (4) Interrogative; as, *who? which? what?*

§ 1.—PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

114. The Personal Pronouns are so called, because they stand for the three persons, viz.—

(a) The First, which denotes the person *speaking*; as, *I, we, myself*:—

I (*the person now speaking*) will do all *I* can to win a prize at the end of the year.

(b) The Second, which denotes the person *spoken to*; as, *thou, you, thyself*:—

You (*the person now spoken to*) should leave off this habit of idleness.

(c) The Third, which denotes the person or thing *spoken of*; as, *he, she, it, himself, herself, itself*:—

He (*the person already mentioned*) did a good day's work with his tutor.

115. Forms of Personal Pronouns.—Personal Pronouns have the same differences of gender, number, and case that nouns have:—

I. The First Person, Masculine or Feminine.

Case.		Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i>	• .	I	We
<i>Possessive</i>	• .	My, mine	Our ours
<i>Objective</i>	• .	Me	Us

II. *The Second Person, Masculine or Feminine.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	Theu	Ye or you
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Thy, thine	Your, yours
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Thee	You

III. *The Third Person, of all Genders.*

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
<i>Nominative</i> .	He	She	It	They
<i>Possessive</i> .	His	Her or hers	Its	Their or theirs
<i>Objective</i> .	Him	Her	It	Them

116. **Two Forms of Possessive.**—Most of the Personal pronouns have two forms for the Possessive:—

Singular.	Plural.		
<i>First Form.</i> My Thy Her	Our	Your	Their
<i>Second</i> . . Mine Thine Hers	Ours	Yours	Theirs

The first is used, when the Possessive is placed *before* its noun. It qualifies the noun like an adjective.

This is *my* book. That is *their* house.

The second is used—(a) when the pronoun is separated from its noun by a verb coming between; (b) when the noun is understood; (c) when the pronoun is preceded by “*of*”

- (a) This book is *mine*. That house is *theirs*.
- (b) My horse and *yours* (your horse) are both tired.
- (c) That horse of *yours* is tired.

Note 1.—“Hers,” “ours,” “yours,” “theirs” are in fact Double Possessives, the “r” being one sign of the Possessive, and the “s” another. In such phrases as “of yours,” the “of” is discussed in § 67. It is best to regard “of yours” as a treble possessive.

Note 2.—In poetry “mine” and “thine” are sometimes placed before their nouns, when the noun following begins with a vowel. This is done to separate the sounds of the two vowels:—

Look through *mine eyes* with *thine*.—*Tennyson*.

Note 3.—In poetry “mine” can be placed after its noun; as “mother *mine*” instead of “my mother.”

117. **Reflexive Personal Pronouns.**—These are formed by adding “self” or “own” to a Personal pronoun.

I. *The First Person.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i> . . .	Myself	Ourselves
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	My or mine own	Our own

II. *The Second Person.*

Case.	Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i> . . .	Thyself	Yourselves
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Thy or thine own	Your own

III. *The Third Person.*

Case.	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	
<i>Nom. or Obj.</i>	Himself	Herself	Itself	Themselves
<i>Possessive</i>	His own	Her own	Its own	Their own

118. **Uses of Reflexive Forms.**—The Reflexive forms of Personal pronouns are used for two purposes—(a) to show that the person (or thing) does something to himself (or itself); (b) to make the pronouns more emphatic.

Examples of (a).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I hid myself.	We hid ourselves.
I hit my own head.	We hit our own heads.
Thou lovest thine own work.	You love your own work.
The cat seated itself.	The cats seated themselves.

Examples of (b).

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
I myself saw the horse.	We ourselves saw it.
Thou thyself sawest the horse.	You yourselves saw it.
He himself (or she herself) saw it.	They themselves saw it.
The wall itself fell.	The walls themselves fell.

§ 2.—DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

119. A Demonstrative Pronoun is one that *points to* some noun going before, and is used instead of it. This noun is called the Antecedent.

120. Forms of Demonstrative Pronouns.—The chief pronouns belonging to the class of Demonstratives are:—*this, that, these, those; one, ones, none; such.*

The student will have observed that these words have appeared already in the list of Demonstrative *Adjectives*. Where, then, is the difference?

When they qualify some noun expressed or understood, they are Adjectives.

When they are substitutes for some noun expressed or understood, they are Pronouns.

(a) He came to my house *one* day.

Here *one* is an adjective (Indefinite Demonstrative) qualifying its noun "day."

(b) Your coat is black; mine is a white one.

Here *one* is a pronoun, which is used as a substitute for the previously-mentioned noun "coat," and is qualified by the adjective "white."

121. He, she, it, they.—The simplest forms of Demonstrative pronouns are *he, she, it, they*.

These have been hitherto called "Personal pronouns," partly because they exemplify the Third person as distinct from the First and Second, and partly because "he" and "she" and sometimes "they" do actually relate to *persons*, and not to *things*.

Yet it is equally correct to call them Demonstrative pronouns, since they *point to* some noun going before and are substituted for it.

- (1) My father has gone ; we saw *him* start a short time ago. (Here *him* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for its Antecedent noun "father.")
- (2) My mother came yesterday ; we were glad to see *her*. (Here *her* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for its Antecedent noun "mother.")
- (3) The sun has risen ; *it* shines brightly. (Here *it* is a Demonstrative pronoun used as a substitute for the noun "sun.")
- (4) The travellers fell asleep as soon as *they* arrived. (Here *they* is a Demonstrative pronoun substituted for the noun "travellers.")

122. *It*.—This pronoun has three distinct modes of reference :—

(a) To a *noun* going before. In this sense it is merely a Demonstrative pronoun used in the ordinary way :—

The sun has risen : *it* (=the sun) shines brightly.

(b) To a *clause* going before :—

I have treated him as he deserved ; and he knows *it*. (Here "it" points to the clause "I have treated him as he deserved.")

(c) To a *phrase* or *clause* coming after :—

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{It is sad to hear such bad news. (Phrase.)} \\ \text{It—viz. "to hear such bad news"—is sad.} \end{array} \right.$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{It is probable that it will rain to-day. (Clause.)} \\ \text{It—viz. "that it will rain to-day"—is probable.} \end{array} \right.$
--	--

123. *This*, *that*, *these*, *those*.—The uses of these words as *pronouns*, and not as *adjectives*, are as follows :—

(a) When two nouns have been mentioned in a previous sentence or clause, "this" has reference to the *latter* and "that" to the *former* :—

- (1) Work and play are both necessary to health ; *this* (=play) gives us rest, and *that* (=work) gives us energy.
- (2) Dogs are more faithful animals than cats ; *these* (=cats) attach themselves to places, and *those* (=dogs) to persons.

Observe that in the first of these sentences "this" does not specify which or *what* play is meant, and therefore it is not a Demonstrative-Adjective. It is simply put as a *substitute* for the noun "play," and therefore it is a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The same explanation holds good for the other examples.

(b) The word "that," together with its plural form "those," is used as substitute for a single noun previously mentioned :—

- (1) The air of the hills is cooler than *that* (=the air) of the plains.
- (2) The houses of the rich are larger than *those* (=the houses) of the poor.

Observe the word "that" in the first example does not qualify the noun "air" by saying *which* air or *what* air, and therefore it is not an Adjective. It stands for "air" in general, and is a *substitute* for the noun "air"; and therefore it is a Pronoun.

(c) The words "this" or "that" can be used as substitutes for a *clause* or *sentence* previously mentioned :—

(1) I studied Greek and Latin when I was young, and *that* (= I studied Greek and Latin) at Oxford.

Here by using the pronoun "that" as a substitute for the sentence "I studied Greek and Latin," we not only avoid repeating this sentence a second time, but we give some emphasis to the words "at Oxford."

(2) Make the best use of your time at school; *that's* a wise boy.

Here "that" = "one who makes the best use of his time at school." All this repetition is avoided by using the pronoun "that" as a substitute for the implied sentence.

(3) You paid your debts; and *this* {=the payment of your debts} is quite sufficient to prove your honesty.

124. One, ones.—When the antecedent noun is in the Singular number, we use "one"; but when the antecedent noun is Plural, we use "ones."

(1) He gained a prize last year; but he did not gain *one* (=a prize) this term. (*Singular.*)

(2) There were six lazy boys and four industrious *ones* (=boys) in our class. (*Plural.*)

125. Such, so.—"Such" can be substituted for a noun in either number :—

(1) He is the judge appointed to hear this case, and as *such* (=as the appointed judge) you must not speak to him before the trial. (*Singular.*)

(2) Kings are constituted *such* (=kings) by law, and should be obeyed. (*Plural.*)

"So" is sometimes used in places where we could also use "such"; but "so" is a Demonstrative *Adverb*, which can easily be expressed by an equivalent adverbial phrase :—

My business is urgent, and you must treat it *so* (=in such a light). Is he an enemy? He is *so* (=of such a character).

Examples for Practice.

Show whether the words printed in *italics* are Demonstrative *Adjectives* or Demonstrative *Pronouns* :—

This horse is stronger than *that*.

Health is of more value than money; *this* cannot give such *true* happiness as *that*.

I prefer a white horse to a black *one*.

You will repent of this *one* day, when it is too late.
 You have kept your promise ; *this* was all that I asked for.
 The faithfulness of a dog is greater than *that* of a cat.
One Mr. B. helped his friend in need ; *that* was a true friend.
 Return to your work, and *that* immediately.
 Bring me *that* book, and leave *this* where it is.
 The step you have taken is *one* of much risk.
Such a book as yours deserves to be well read.
 Prosperous men are much exposed to flattery ; for *such* alone can be
 made to pay for it.

Prosperous men are not always more happy than unlucky *ones*.
 A pale light, like *that* of the rising moon, begins to fringe the
 horizon.

Will you ride *this* horse or *that* ?

A stranger could not be received twice as *such* in the same house.
 The plan you have chosen does not seem to me to be a wise *one*.
One man says *this*, another *that* ; whom should I believe ?

126. Indefinite Demonstrative Pronouns.—Sometimes
 Demonstrative pronouns are used *indefinitely* ; that is, they
 are not used as substitutes for some noun expressly
 mentioned, but for some noun understood or implied.

(a) **They**.—This pronoun is sometimes used for *men*
in general, or some person whose name is purposely con-
 cealed :—

- (1) *They* say (=men in general say) that truth and honesty is the best policy.
- (2) *They* told me (=some person or persons, whom I do not wish to name, told me) that you were guilty of theft.

(b) **One**.—This pronoun is often used in the sense of
any person or *every person* :—

One should take care of *one's* health.

= *A man* (any and every man) should take care of *his* health.

Note 1.—Whenever “one” is the subject to a verb, it must be fol-
 lowed by “one” and not by “he.” Thus we cannot say, “one must
 take care of *his* health.”

Note 2.—“None” (=no one) should be followed by a Singular verb,
 when it is the Subject of the sentence :—

None but the brave *deserves* the fair.—*Dryden*.

But when several persons or things are spoken of, the verb can be
 made Plural by attraction :—

None of my lost books *were* found.

(c) **It**.—The indefinite use of this pronoun is an idiom
 peculiar to modern English. (For its history see p. 273.)

Who is it? It is I. Is it you? No; it is he.

In such phrases as those shown below, "it" gives emphasis to the noun or pronoun following:—

It was I who told you that. *It* is the men who work hardest, not the women. *It* was the queen who died yesterday. *It* is little things that chiefly disturb the mind.

Sometimes the noun, for which the word "it" is used, can be understood from the context:—

It is raining = rain is raining or falling.
It is blowing hard = the wind is blowing hard.
It is fine to-day = the weather is fine to-day.
It is hot = the air is hot. *It* is cold = the air is cold.
It is still early = the hour is still early.
It is two miles from here = the distance is two miles.
It was autumn = the season of the year was autumn.

Sometimes the word "it" is used instead of some Personal pronoun to express endearment or contempt:—

What a pretty little girl *it* is (=she is)! (Endearment.)
 What an ass *it* is (=that man is)! (Contempt.)

§ 3.—RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

127. A Relative Pronoun not only refers to some noun going before (as a Demonstrative pronoun does), but it also joins two sentences together (which a Demonstrative pronoun does not do). It is therefore a Conjunctive pronoun (§ 18).

This is a good house; I live in *it*. (Demonstrative Pronoun.)
 This house, in which I live, is a good one. (Relative Pronoun.)

128. Who, which. — The Relative pronoun is most commonly expressed by *who* or *which*.

Case.	Singular and Plural.	Singular and Plural.
	Masculine and Feminine.	Neuter.
<i>Nominative</i> . . .	Who	Which
<i>Possessive</i> . . .	Whose	Whose or of which
<i>Objective</i> . . .	Whom	Which

The most common form of the Possessive Neuter is "of which," but "whose" is often used in poetry, and sometimes in prose.

Note.—The Masculine and Feminine forms are used for *persons* only. The Neuter forms are used for inanimate things and for all kinds of animals except persons (men and women).

129. **Forms of Antecedent.**—The antecedent may take the form of a noun, a pronoun, or a clause:—

You have paid your debts, which (=the fact that you have paid your debts) is a clear proof of your honesty. (*Clause.*)

130. **Antecedent understood.**—When the antecedent is understood, the neuter Relative takes the form of "what," while the Masculine and Feminine retain the form of "who."

(a) *Who* = *he who*, or *she who*, or *they who*.

Who (=he who) steals my purse, steals trash.—*Shakspeare*.

Whom (=those persons whom) the gods love, die young.—*Proverb*.

(b) *What* = *the thing which*, or *the things which*.

I cannot tell you now *what* (=the things which) then happened.

The laws are *what* (=the things which) you say they are.

(c) *So, ever, or soever* added to the Relative pronoun or to Relative adverbs (§ 18, 3) gives the meaning of totality:—

Whosoever (=any and every person who) breaks this law will be punished, *wherever* (in any and every place where) he may live.

Note 1.—"What" has been called a "Compound Relative," because the antecedent is said to be contained in it. But this is not correct; for the antecedent is sometimes expressed, either (a) in a subsequent clause, or (b) immediately after the Relative itself:—

(a) *What* I tell you in darkness, *that* speak ye in the light.

(b) Take *what* (or *whatever*) *help* you can get.

Note 2.—Whenever the antecedent is placed after the Relative, as in example (b), the relative is not a *substitute* word, and therefore not a true pronoun, but an adjective.

Take *whichever book* (=that book of all books which) you prefer.

131. **That.**—The word "that" is often used for "who," "whom," or "which," but never for "whose":—

This is the house *that* (=which) Jack built.

The man *that* (=whom) we were looking for has come.

132. **As.**—The word "as" can be used for a Relative pronoun, provided it is preceded by "such," or "as," or "the same." It may be in the Nominative or the Objective case but not in the Possessive.

This is not such a good book as I expected.

As many men as came were caught.

Yours is not the same book as mine (is).

After "such" and "as" the word "as" is always used. But after "the same" it is not less common to use "that."

This is *the same* story *that* (=which) I heard ten years ago.
This is *the same* man *that* (=whom) I saw yesterday.

Note.—The use of "that" or "as" after "the same" is guided by the following rules:—(1) When a verb is *expressed* after it, we generally use "that"; (2) When the verb is *understood*, we always use "as":—

- (1) This is the same man *that* came yesterday. (*Verb expressed.*)
- (2) This is not the same book *as* mine (*is*). (*Verb understood.*)

133. But.—The conjunction "but," when some *Demonstrative pronoun* is *understood* after it, is used in the sense of "who not" or "which not." (See p. 249 (b) on this point.)

There was no one present, *but* saw (=but *he saw* = *who did not see*) the deed.

There is no vice so simple, *but* may (=but *it may* = *which may not*) become serious in time.

The two uses of Who and Which.

134. Restrictive, Continuative.—These words denote two distinct uses of "who" or "which":—

(a) *Restrict.*—The man *who lived there* died yesterday.

(b) *Contin.*—I have seen my friend, *who recognised* me at once.

In (a) the Relative clause does the work of an *adjective* to the noun "man," because it *restricts* the application of this noun to that particular man who is said to have "lived there."

In (b) the Relative clause "who recognised me at once" has no restrictive force on the noun "friend." It simply *continues* what was said in the previous clause:—"I found my friend, *and he* (=who) recognised me at once."

Note.—Besides the Restrictive and the Continuative, there are two more senses of "who" and "which,"—one implying a *Cause*, and the other a *Purpose*:—

(c) *Cause.* { Balbus, *who* had been found guilty, was hanged.
 { = Balbus, *because* he had been found guilty, was hanged.

(d) *Purpose.* { Envys were sent, *who* should sue for peace.
 { = Envys were sent, *that they* might sue for peace.

In (c) and (d) the Relative clause is neither Restrictive nor Continuative, since (c) implies the *cause* of something already done, and (d) the *purpose* for which something is going to be done.

135. Who, that.—"Who" and "which" are the only Relatives that are ever used in the sense of Continuation, Cause, or Purpose. The other, viz. "that," is invariably used in a Restrictive sense, and much more commonly so than "who" or "which."

§ 4.—INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

136. An Interrogative Pronoun is one which asks a question.

137. Forms of Interrogatives.—The Interrogative pronoun has five different forms.

- Who* spoke? (Nominative to the verb.)
- Of whom* did he speak? (Objective after preposition.)
- What* did he say? (Objective after verb "say.")
- Whose* book is that? (Possessive Case.)
- Which* of these boys will win the prize? (Selective.)

138. Which, what, who.—(a) "Which" is used in a selective sense; (b) "who" or "what" is used in a general sense:—

- (a) *Which* of these books do you prefer?
- (b) *What* is the name of that book? *Who* wrote it?
- (c) *What* book is that? *Which* book do you like best?

In the examples in (c) "what" and "which," since they are followed by nouns, are Interrogative adjectives, in the same way as a Demonstrative can be either an adjective or a pronoun (see § 120) according to the context.

139. The student should observe the different meanings of the Interrogatives used in the following sentences:—

- (a) *Who* is he?
- (b) *What* is he?
- (c) *Which* is he?

In (a) the "who" inquires about the name or parentage of some person that has been named.

In (b) the "what" inquires about his calling or social status. "What is he?" A pleader.

In (c) the "which" inquires about some particular person out of a definite group of persons. "The man who stole my purse is among the prisoners here present: which is he? Point him out."

140. Whether.—The word "whether," when it signifies one of two persons or things, is now almost obsolete.

Whether of them twain (=which of these two men) did the will of his father?—*New Testament*.

141. Exclamatory Pronoun.—The Interrogative "what" may be used in an exclamatory sense.

What folly! *What* a foolish man he is!

Parsing Model for Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

The man, that shot four tigers from an elephant's back on his first day of sport, received much praise, which gave him the greatest delight.

The—Definite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “man.”
Man—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “received.”

That—Relative pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person; agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “man,” nominative case, subject to the verb “shot.”

Shot—Verb.

Four—Numeral adjective, cardinal, qualifying the noun “tigers.”

Tigers—Common noun, masculine gender, plural number, objective case after the verb “shot.”

From—Preposition, having “back” for its object.

An—Indefinite demonstrative adjective, qualifying the noun “elephant's.”

Elephant's—Common noun, common gender, singular number, possessive case, qualifying the noun “back” (§ 103, 4).

Back—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “from.”

On—Preposition, having “day” for its object.

His—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, possessive case, agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “man.” Qualifies the noun “day” (§ 116).

First—Numeral adjective, ordinal, qualifying the noun “day.”

Day—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “on.”

Of—Preposition, having “sport” for its object.

Sport—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “of.”

Received—Verb.

Much—Adjective of quantity, positive degree, qualifying the noun “praise.”

Praise—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “received.”

Which—Relative pronoun, neuter gender, singular number, third person, having the clause “received much praise” as its antecedent (§ 129), nominative case, subject to the verb “gave.” Used in a Conclusive sense (§ 134).

Gave—Verb.

Him—Personal pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, third person, agreeing with its antecedent “man,” objective case after the verb “gave.” (Indirect object, see § 148.)

Greatest—Adjective of quality, superlative degree, qualifying the noun “delight.”

Delight—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case, second objective to the verb “gave.” (Direct object, see § 148.)

CHAPTER V.—VERBS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF VERBS.

142. **Verb defined.**—A Verb is a word used for saying something about some person or thing (§ 14).

Verbs are subdivided into three main classes:—

I. Transitive. II. Intransitive. III. Auxiliary.

Verbs which are not used in all the moods and tenses are called **Defective**. They may be Transitive, Intransitive, or Auxiliary.

143. *A verb is Transitive, if the action does not stop with the agent, but passes from the agent to something else.*

- (1) The man killed a snake.
- (2) I do not know whether he has come.

The word or words denoting that person or thing, to which the action of the verb is directed, are called the **Object** to the verb. The various grammatical forms in which the Object can be expressed have been shown in § 24, and will be shown again in § 146.

144. *A verb is Intransitive, when the action stops with the agent, and does not pass from the agent to anything else.*

Men sleep to preserve life.

Sleep what? This is nonsense. No word or words can be placed as object to such a verb as "sleep."

145. An Auxiliary verb is one which (a) *helps* to form a tense or mood of some Principal verb, and (b) *foregoes its own signification as a Principal verb* for that purpose.

I have come from home to-day.

Here *have* foregoes its own signification "possession" in order to help the Principal or non-Auxiliary verb "come" to form a Present Perfect tense.

§ 2.—TRANSITIVE VERBS.

146. **Forms of the Object.**—Most Transitive verbs take a *single* object. The object to a verb may be expressed in various different forms, the chief of which are the following (§ 24):—

- (a) **Noun** :—The man killed a *snake* with his stick.
- (b) **Pronoun** :—The man lifted *me* up out of the water.

- (c) **Infinitive** :—He desires to leave us to-morrow.
- (d) **Gerund** :—He disliked sleeping in the daytime.
- (e) **Phrase** :—No one knew how to make a beginning.
- (f) **Clause** :—We do not know who has come.

147. Position of the Object.—A noun denoting the object to a verb is usually placed *after* the verb to which it belongs. But when the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun, or when emphasis is thrown on the noun used as object, the object is placed not after, but before the verb.

Relative.—The man *whom* I saw yesterday has come back to-day.

Interrogative.—*What* did you say? *Whom* were you looking for?

Emphasis.—*Silver and gold* have I none; but *what* I have give I unto thee.—*New Testament*.

148. The Double Object.—Some Transitive verbs take two objects after them, one of which is usually the name of some *thing*, and the other of some *person* or *other animal*.

The *thing* named is called the **Direct object**; the *person* or *other animal* named is called the **Indirect**.

Note.—Another way of distinguishing the two objects is by observing that the Indirect object always stands first. If the Indirect is placed after the Direct, it must be preceded by the preposition "for" or "to":—

He taught Euclid (*Direct*) to his sons (*Indirect*).

Point out the Direct and Indirect objects in the following:—

Bring me that book. I *forgave* him his faults. We *allowed* him two rupees. We *envy* him his good luck. He *taught* me English. He *refused* me the loan of a book. I have *asked* you a question. You *answered* me nothing. They *gave* the boy a prize. They *sent* the boy a book. They *sent* me ten rupees. They *fined* him ten rupees. He *owed* me twelve rupees. The man *told* me the story. He *showed* me the way. He *left* them all his wealth. They *played* him a trick. He *promised* me his help. He *saved* me much grief. They *sold* him two horses. He *did* me a great kindness. He *made* me a handsome present. This man *bears* me a grudge. This affair *caused* him much trouble, and *raised* him up enemies.

149. Factitive Verbs.—Those Transitive verbs which take *one* object only, but still require some word or words to make the predication *complete*, are called **Factitive** (§ 25).

The additional word or words by which the predication is made complete are called the **Complement**.

The Complement may be in seven different forms:—
a noun, an adjective, a participle, a preposition with its
object, an Infinitive verb, an adverb, or a noun-clause:—

Subject.	Verb.	Object.	Complement.
<i>Noun</i> :—They	made	him	king.
<i>Adjective</i> :—The judge	set	the prisoner	free.
<i>Participle</i> :—They	found	her	still weeping.
<i>Prep. with Object</i> :—This plot	filled	us all	with terror.
<i>Infinitive</i> :—I	like	a rascal	to be punished.
<i>Adverb</i> :—They	found	the man	asleep.
<i>Clause</i> :—We	have made	him	what he is.

Note.—The necessity of adding a Complement to certain verbs, in order to make the predication complete, can be seen at once from the example, “I like a rascal to be punished.” If you merely say, “I like a rascal,” you are saying the opposite to what you intended: for you do not like a rascal, but a rascal *to be punished*, or the *punishment* of a rascal.

150. Omission of the Relative as Object.—This occurs in two kinds of sentences—(a) When the verb is Transitive; (b) when the verb is Intransitive, but followed by a preposition.

This never occurs, however, when the Relative is used in a Continuative sense (see § 134).

- (a) The books I bought cost three rupees.
The house we occupied has fallen down.
The man I engaged has now come.
He was not careful about the air he breathed.
- (b) The house we lived in has fallen down.
The chairs we sat on are ten in number.
We have at last got the thing we fought for.
I have brought the book you spoke about.

Supply the Relative pronoun that is understood in each of the above sentences.

151. Transitive Verbs used Intransitively.—There are two ways in which Transitives can become Intransitive:—

(a) When the verb is used in such a general sense that no object or objects are thought of in using it:—

Men *eat* to preserve life.
A new-born child *sees*, but a kitten is born blind.

(b) When the Reflexive pronoun is omitted:—

He *drew* (himself) near me. *Move* (yourself) forward.

§ 3.—INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

152. Intransitive Verbs of Complete Predication.—This is the name given to any Intransitive verb, which makes a complete sense by itself, and does not require any word or words to be added to it for this purpose:—

Rivers *flow*. Winds *blow*. Horses *run*, or *walk*, or *graze*, or *lie down*. Birds *fly*. All animals *sleep*. All animals *die*.

153. Intransitive Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—This is the name given to those Intransitive verbs, which do not make a complete sense by themselves, but require a Complement to supply what the verb left unsaid (§ 27).

The Complement to Intransitive verbs may be in the same kinds of form as the Complement to Factitive verbs:—

	Subject.	Verb.	Complement.
<i>Noun</i>	{ A horse That beggar	is turned out	a four-legged animal. a thief.
<i>Adjective</i>	{ The man The dog	has fallen went	sick. mad.
<i>Participle</i>	{ The man The stag	appears continued	pleased. running and jumping.
<i>Prep. with Object</i>	{ Your coat That book	is proved	of many colours. of no use.
<i>Infinitive</i>	{ The flower You	seems appear	to be fading. to have forgotten me.
<i>Adverb</i>	The man	has fallen	asleep.
<i>Clause</i>	The results	are	what we expected.

Note 1.—When the Complement comes after an Intransitive verb, it is called a **Subjective Complement**, because it relates to the Subject.

But when it comes after a Factitive verb in the *Active* voice, it is called an **Objective Complement**, because it relates to the Object.

Note 2.—The Complement usually stands *after* its verb, but for the sake of emphasis it may be placed *before* it:—

Straight is the gate, and *narrow* is the way that leadeth unto life, and *few* there be that find it.—*New Testament*.

154. The Cognate Object.—An Intransitive verb, though it is never followed by a noun denoting an *outside* or foreign object, may sometimes be followed by a noun *already implied more or less in the verb itself*.

Thus we can say “he has lived a sad *life*,” where the noun *life* is implied already in the verb “lived,” and is in fact part of its meaning. Such objects are called *cognate* or “*kindred*” because the noun denoting them is of kindred meaning to that of the verb itself.

There are five different forms of Cognate object:—

(a) *Cognate noun formed directly from the verb.*

He laughed a hearty <i>laugh</i> .	He slept a sound <i>sleep</i> .
He died a sad <i>death</i> .	He prayed an earnest <i>prayer</i> .
He lived a long <i>life</i> .	He sighed a deep <i>sigh</i> .
He fought a good <i>fight</i> .	He sang a fine <i>song</i> .

(b) *Cognate noun of similar meaning.*

He went a long <i>way</i> .	He ran his own <i>course</i> .
He fought a good <i>battle</i> .	It blows a brisk <i>gale</i> .
He struck a deadly <i>blow</i> .	The bells ring a merry <i>peal</i> .

(c) *A noun descriptive of the Cognate noun understood.*

They shouted <i>applause</i> =they shouted a <i>shout</i> of applause.
He served his <i>apprenticeship</i> =he served his <i>service</i> as an apprentice.
He ran a great <i>risk</i> =he ran a <i>course</i> of great risk.
He played the <i>fool</i> =he played the <i>part</i> of a fool.

(d) *An adjective qualifying the Cognate noun understood.*

He shouted his loudest (shout). He ran his fastest (run or pace).
He fought his best (fight). She sang her sweetest (song). He breathed his last (breath). He tried his hardest (trial or attempt).

(e) *Cognate noun expressed by "it."*

We must fight <i>it</i> (=the fight) out to the end.
We have no horse; so we must foot <i>it</i> (that is, go the distance on foot).
Lord Angelo dukes <i>it</i> (=acts the part of a duke) well.—Shakspeare.

155. **The Reflexive or Personal Object.**—In older English, Intransitive verbs were often followed by a Personal pronoun, either reflexive or used reflexively.

A few of such verbs have survived to the present day:—

Hie *thee* home. Fare *thee* well. Haste *thee* away. They sat *them* down. He over-ate *himself*. To over-sleep *oneself*. Vaulting ambition which o'erleaps *itself*.—Shakspeare.

156. **Intransitive Verbs in a causal sense.**—If an Intransitive verb is used in the sense of causing a thing to be done, it becomes Transitive. Of these there are only a few examples in English:—

Intransitive.

The horse trotted out.

Water boils.

The prisoners walk out.

A thorn ran into his hand.

Causal.

They trotted out the horse (= caused it to trot out).

He boils the water (=causes it to boil).

He walks out the prisoners (= causes them to walk out).

He ran a thorn (=caused it to run) into his hand.

Intransitive.

The kite flew into the air.
The soldiers march out.
Wheat grows in the field.
The boat floated.
He talks hoarsely.

Causal.

He flew the kite (=caused it to fly).
He marches out the soldiers.
He grows wheat in the field.
He floated the boat.
He talks himself hoarse; (=he makes himself hoarse by talking).

157. There are a few Intransitive verbs, in which the causal sense is indicated by *some change of vowel*.

Intransitive.

The tree *falls*.
The sun will *rise* at six.
The cow *lies* on the grass.
We must not *sit* here.
He did not *jare* well.
The enemy *quails*.
The fish did not *bite* to-day.
In the same way *drench*=causes to drink, *clench*=causes to clink.

Transitive or Causal.

He *falls* the tree with an axe.
I cannot *raise* this boy.
The man *lays* down his coat.
He *set* the books in order.
He will *ferry* me over.
He *quells* the enemy.
We did not *bait* them properly.

158. **Prepositional Verbs.**—An Intransitive verb can be made Transitive by having a preposition added to it.

Such verbs may be considered to be real Transitives, provided they can be used in the Passive voice.

We *act on* this rule. (*Active.*)

This rule is *acted on* by us. (*Passive.*)

Note 1.—When the verb is in the Passive voice, the *on* cannot be parsed as a preposition, since there is no object to it. It must therefore be parsed as part of the verb itself.

Note 2.—In prepositional verbs, the preposition is almost always placed after the verb; but "*with*" and "*over*" are often placed before it:—

He *withstood* (stood against, endured) the attack.

He was *overcome* (defeated) by the enemy.

The banks were *overflowed* (inundated) with water.

The field is *overgrown* (covered) with weeds.

The boundary has been *overstepped* (transgressed).

All these verbs, when they are used apart from the preposition, are Intransitive. It is the *preposition which makes them Transitive*.

159. **Summary.**—There are thus two ways in which an Intransitive verb can become Transitive—(1) when it is used in a causal sense (§ 156); (2) when it is connected with a preposition so closely that the verb, compounded with the preposition, can be made Passive (§ 158).

Similarly, there are two kinds of objects which can come after an Intransitive verb, although the verb itself continues to be Intransitive—(1) the Cognate object (§ 154); (2) the Reflexive or Personal object (§ 155).

§ 4.—ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICES.

160. A *Transitive* verb has two voices, the **Active** and the **Passive**.

161. *Active voice*.—Here the person or thing denoted by the Subject is said to *do something to* some other person or thing :—

Rám *kills* a snake. (Here the person denoted by the Subject, namely Rám, *does something to* a snake.)

Passive voice.—Here the person or thing is said to *suffer something from* some other person or thing :—

A snake is *killed* by Rám. (Here the thing denoted by the Subject, namely a snake, *suffers something from* Rám.)

162. An *Intransitive* verb is not used in the Passive voice, unless it takes a Cognate object in the Active :—

I have fought the good fight. (*Active.*)

The good fight has been fought by me. (*Passive.*)

163. When a sentence is changed from the Active form to the Passive, the object to the Active verb becomes the subject to the Passive verb.

Object to Active Verb.

Brutes cannot make *tools*.

Brutes do not possess *hands*.

Subject to Passive Verb.

Tools cannot be made by brutes.

Hands are not possessed by brutes.

164. *Retained Object*.—Verbs which take *two* objects after them in the Active voice (§ 148) can still retain *one* in the Passive. This object may be either—

(a) The *Indirect object* of the Active verb ; as—

Active Verb.

I forgave *him* his fault.

We allowed *him* two rupees.

Passive Verb.

The fault was forgiven *him* by me.

Two rupees were allowed *him* by us.

or (b) the *Direct object* of the Active verb ; as—

Active Verb.

I forgave him his *fault*.

We allowed him *two rupees*.

Passive Verb.

He was forgiven *his fault* by me.

He was allowed *two rupees* by us.

Note.—It has now been shown that there are five different kinds of objects which can be used with verbs :—

- (1) *Direct* (with Trans. verbs).—He taught *Euclid* (§ 143).
- (2) *Indirect* (with Trans. verbs).—He taught *his sons* Euclid (§ 148).
- (3) *Retained* (with Pass. verbs).—His sons were taught *Euclid* (§ 164).
- (4) *Cognate* (with Intrans. verbs).—The sever must run its course (§ 154).
- (5) *Reflexive* (with Intrans. verbs).—He sat *himself* down (§ 155).

165. Whenever a Factitive verb is changed from the Active voice to the Passive, the Objective Complement becomes a Subjective one.

Active voice: Complement to Object.

They proclaimed him *king*. They did not crown him *king*.

Passive voice: Complement to Subject.

He was proclaimed *king* by them. He was not crowned *king* by them.

166. Verbs Active in form, but Passive in sense.—Transitive verbs are sometimes used in a Passive sense without being put into the Passive voice:—

(a) Verbs with a Complement:—

The stone *feels* rough (is rough when it is felt).

Honey *tastes* sweet (is sweet when it is tasted).

The milk *smells* sour (is sour when it is smelt).

Your blame *counts* for nothing (is worth nothing when it is counted).

Your composition *reads* well (sounds well when it is read).

The house *does* not *let* (is not taken when it is meant to be let).

The horse *does* not *sell* (is not taken when it is meant to be sold).

That cloth will *wear* thin (will become thin when it is worn).

(b) Verbs without a Complement:—

The house *is building* (=is in a state of being built).

The trumpets *are sounding* (=are being sounded).

The cannons *are firing* (=are being fired).

The drums *are beating* (=are being beaten).

The house *is finishing* (=is being finished).

The book *is printing* (=is being printed).

The cows *are milking* (=are being milked).

Note.—What looks like a Present Participle in this construction was originally a Verbal noun or Gerund preceded by *in* or *on*:—

This house was three years *in building*.

§ 5.—MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

167. Mood defined.—A Mood denotes the *mode* or *manner* in which a statement is made by the verb:—

168. Names of the Moods.—There are four Moods, three Finite and one Infinitive:—

(a) Three Finite moods:—

1. Indicative.
2. Imperative.
3. Subjunctive.

(b) The Infinitive mood.

169. Characters of the Moods.—In the Indicative mood we assert or indicate an action as a *fact*: as, "he comes," "he came," "he will come."

In the Imperative mood we *command* an action ; as, "come thou," "come you," or "come."

In the Subjunctive mood we *suppose* an action ; as, "if he come or should come."

In the Infinitive mood we neither assert, nor command, nor suppose, but simply *name*, an action ; as, "to come."

170. Number and Person.—The number and person of a Finite verb depend upon the nature of its Subject.

Number	If the subject is Singular, the verb must be Singular ; as, Rain <i>is</i> falling.
	If the subject is Plural, the verb must be Plural ; as, Raindrops <i>are</i> falling.
Person	If the subject is in the First person, the verb must be in the First person ; as, I love. We come.
	If the subject is in the Second person, the verb must be in the Second person ; as, Thou lovest. You come.
	If the subject is in the Third person, the verb must be in the Third person ; as, He loves. The teacher <i>has</i> come.

Hence arises the following rule:—*A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject.*

Note.—All nouns and noun-equivalents take verbs in the Third person. All pronouns excepting the First Personal and the Second Personal take verbs in the Third person.

Point out the number and person of every verb in the following sentences:—

The cow *is* a quiet and useful animal. Oxen *draw* the plough. I *see* four men coming. They *see* the sun rising. We *see* the hills in the distance. Thou *art* the wisest man in the room. The horse *carries* its rider. Four men *carry* the palanquin. That the horse is lame *is seen* by all of us. How to do this *was not understood*.

171. Tense defined.—Tense shows (a) the *time* of an action, (b) its *degree of completeness*. The verb may tell you:

(1) That an action *is done* at the Present time ; as, "he *sees* a star."

(2) That an action *was done* in the Past time ; as, "he *saw* a star."

(3) That an action *will be done* in the Future time ; as, "he *will see* a star."

A verb, then, has three main times or tenses, viz. the Present, the Past, and the Future.

172. To each tense there are four different forms:—

I. **Indefinite**; which denotes Present, Past, or Future time in its simplest form; as, "I love," "I loved," "I shall love."

II. **Continuous**; which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is still *continuing* or not yet completed; as, "I am loving," "I was loving," "I shall be loving."

Note.—This tense is sometimes called the **Imperfect**, because it denotes an event which is imperfect or not completed.

III. **Perfect**; which denotes that the event (in Present, Past, or Future time) is in a completed or *perfect* state; as, "I have loved," "I had loved," "I shall have loved."

IV. **Perfect Continuous**; which combines the meanings of the two preceding forms; as, "I have been loving," "I had been loving," "I shall have been loving."

§ 6.—INDICATIVE MOOD.

Forms of the Tenses, Indicative Mood.

173. The three Tenses and twelve forms of a verb in the Indicative Mood are shown in the following table:—

I.—*Active Voice.*

<i>Form.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>
1. <i>Indefinite</i>	I love	I loved	I shall love
2. <i>Continuous</i>	I am loving	I was loving	I shall be loving
3. <i>Perfect</i>	I have loved	I had loved	I shall have loved
4. <i>Perfect Continuous</i>	I have been loving	I had been loving	I shall have been loving

II.—*Passive Voice.*

<i>Form.</i>	<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Future Tense.</i>
1. <i>Indefinite</i>	I am loved	I was loved	I shall be loved
2. <i>Continuous</i>	I am being loved	I was being loved	(Wanting)
3. <i>Perfect</i>	I have been loved	I had been loved	I shall have been loved
4. <i>Perfect Continuous</i>	(Wanting)	(Wanting)	(Wanting)

174. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined in the following form, for all numbers and persons:—

I.—*Active Voice.**Present Tense.*

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I love	We love	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou lovest	Ye or you love	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He loves or loveth	They love	

Past Tense.

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I loved	We loved	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou lovedst	Ye or you loved	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He loved	They loved	

Future Tense.

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I shall love	We shall love	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou wilt love	Ye or you will love	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He will love	They will love	

N.B.—(1) The Singular forms of the Second person (thou lovest, thou lovedst, thou wilt love) are now seldom used except in poetry. They have been superseded by the Plural forms (you love, you loved, and you will love), which, though Plural in fact, are used in a Singular sense as well as in a Plural sense; as, “Have you come, my son?” “Have you,” being addressed to “son,” is used in a Singular sense, and may be parsed as Singular.

(2) The form “he loveth” is now seldom used except in poetry.

II.—*Passive Voice.**Present Tense.*

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I am loved	We are loved	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou art loved	Ye or you are loved	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He is loved	They are loved	

Past Tense.

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I was loved	We were loved	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou wast loved	Ye or you were loved	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He was loved	They were loved	

Future Tense.

		<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Person</i>	I shall be loved	We shall be loved	
<i>2nd</i>	“ Thou wilt be loved	Ye or you will be loved	
<i>3rd</i>	“ He will be loved	They will be loved	

175. *Do* and *Did*.—The Present Indefinite in the Active voice can also be formed by “do,” and the Past by “did.”

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I do love	We do love
2nd "	Thou dost love	Ye or you do love
3rd "	He does love	They do love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	I did love	We did love
2nd "	Thou didst love	Ye or you did love
3rd "	He did love	They did love

This form is used for three different purposes :—

(a) For the sake of emphasis ; as, "I *do* love," "I *did* love."

(b) For the sake of bringing in the word "not" ; as, "I *do not* love" (which is better than saying "I love not"), "I *did not* love" (which is better than saying "I loved not").

(c) For the sake of asking a question ; as, "Does he love?" "Why *did* he love?" "Did he not love?"

176. Whenever *do* or *did* is used for asking a question, the noun or pronoun used as subject to the verb is placed after the *do* or *did*, and not before it ; as—

Do I love? Did he not love? (Question.)

But whenever *do* or *did* is used for the sake of emphasis or with "not," the noun or pronoun stands before the verb, and not after it ; as—

I *do not* love. (Negative.) I *do* love. (Emphasis.)

Correct the following :

Loved he not? Came he? He not saw this book. He reads not his book with care. They not slept long last night. They broke not the slate, but he broke it. You not read your book well. This letter came for me to-day or yesterday? It came not to-day, but yesterday. You not yet finished reading the letter?

177. Has come, is come.—These two forms have not the same meaning, and do not belong to the same tense.

(a) In the form "I *have* come," the *time of the action* is prominent. Since this is the Present Perfect tense, it denotes *present time*. By what time was the coming completed? By the present time. The word "come" is here *part of a tense*.

(b) In the form "I *am* come," the *state of the agent* is

prominent, and not the time of the action. In what state is the agent? The state of having come. In the form "I am come" the word "come" is *not* part of a tense, but is the *Past Participle* used as Subjective Complement to the verb "am."

"The flower *is* faded." In what state is the flower? Faded.

No prominence is given to the time of the fading.

"The flower *has* faded." By what time was the fading of the flower completed? By the present time.¹

178. Shall and will.—These (as the student has learnt already) are the two Auxiliary verbs by means of which the Future tense is formed in both voices.

One of the puzzles in English is to know when to use "*shall*" and when to use "*will*".

With a view to clearing up this matter it should be understood that there are *three* senses in which the future tense can be used:—

- (a) To express *merely future time*, and nothing more.
- (b) To combine future time with an implied *command*.
- (c) To combine future time with an implied *intention*.

(a) Merely future time.

When nothing but future time is intended—*mere futurity*, without any idea of command or intention being mixed up with it—*shall* must be used for the *First* person, and *will* for the *Second* and *Third* persons, as below:—

	Singular.	Plural.
1st Person	I <i>shall</i> go	We <i>shall</i> go
2nd ,,	Thou <i>will</i> go	You <i>will</i> go
3rd ,,	He <i>will</i> go	They <i>will</i> go

(b) An Implied Command, Promise, or Threat.

Whenever we desire to express, not merely future time, but some *command*, or *promise*, or *threat* in addition, *shall* is put for *will* in the Second and Third persons. *Shall* is here a Principal verb.

You *shall* be hanged (by some one's command).

You *shall* receive your prize to-morrow (promise).

If you do this, you *shall* be hanged (threat).

(c) An Implied Intention.

When the speaker wishes to express some intention of his own, then *will* is put for *shall* in the First person:—

I *will* call on you to-day, and I *shall* then say good-bye.

Here the first verb denotes the *intention* of calling, while the second denotes *merely future time*. "Will" is here a Principal verb.

¹ It is therefore incorrect to say (as is commonly done) that "has come" and "is come" are equivalent, and that the use of "is" and "was" for "has" and "had" is limited to verbs of motion.

§ 7.—IMPERATIVE MOOD.

179. The Imperative mood is used only in the Present tense, and only in the Second person:—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Speak, or speak thou.	Speak, or speak you, or speak ye.

180. To express the *First* and *Third* persons of the Imperative mood, we use the verb *let*, which is itself the Second person (Singular or Plural) of the Imperative mood of the verb “to let”; as—

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person Let me speak	Let us speak
3rd “ Let him speak	Let them speak

N.B.—Here *speak* is in the Infinitive mood with the “*to*” left out.

In older English, however, and sometimes even to this day in poetry, but very rarely in prose, the First and Third persons of the Subjunctive are used in an Imperative sense; as—

Every soldier *kill* (=is ordered to kill) his prisoners.—*Shakspeare*.
Thither our path lies; *wind* *we* (=let us wind) up the height.—
R. Browning.

The Third person of the Subjunctive mood occurs in the common phrase *suffice it*, which means “let it suffice”:—

Suffice it to say that all the prisoners were acquitted.

181. The chief uses of the Imperative mood are to express (a) *command*, (b) *precept*, or (c) *entreaty*:—

(a) *Command*:—

Speak,—or I fire.

Awake, *arise*, or *be* for ever fallen.—*Milton*.

(b) *Precept* or *Invitation*:—

Go to the ant, thou sluggard; *consider* her ways and *be* wise.—*Old Testament*.

(c) *Entreaty* or *Prayer*:—

Give us this day our daily bread, and *forgive* us our trespasses, as we forgive them that trespass against us.—*Lord's Prayer*.

182. When the verb is negative, that is, prohibitive, the Imperative is now formed by the Auxiliary “*do*.”

<i>Older Form.</i>	<i>Present Form.</i>
Fear not.	<i>Do</i> not fear.
Taste not that food.	<i>Do</i> not taste that food.

Sometimes, even when the verb is affirmative, the Imperative is formed by “*do*,” in order to give more emphasis to an entreaty. This, however, occurs only in colloquial English.

Do leave off making that noise.

Do help me to lift this box.

183. The Imperative mood is sometimes used to express a **Supposition** :—

Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves
(=If you take care of the pence, the pounds will, etc.).

Resist the devil, and he will flee from you (=If you resist the devil, he will flee, etc.).

184. Sometimes, but very rarely, the Imperative mood is used absolutely ; see § 28 (c).

A large number of men, *say* a hundred, are working on the railroad.
Behold, this dreamer cometh.—*Old Testament*.

§ 8.—THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

185. The Subjunctive mood is so called, because the clause containing the verb in this mood is generally *subjoined* to some other clause, and seldom stands alone.

186. The Present, Past, and Future tenses (Indefinite) are declined as follows in the Active voice :—

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I love	If we love
2nd „	If thou love (rare)	If you love
3rd „	If he love (rare)	If they love

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I loved	If we loved
2nd „	If thou lovedst	If you loved
3rd „	If he loved	If they loved

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I should love	If we should love
2nd „	If thou shouldst love	If ye or you should love
3rd „	If he should love	If they should love

Note.—We call the second of these the Past tense, because it is past in *form*. But in the Subjunctive mood this past form has reference not to past, but to present or future contingencies, as is shown in § 190 (3).

187. The verb “*to be*” takes the following forms in the Subjunctive ; but the Present tense is now rarely used.

Present Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I be	If we be
2nd „	If thou be	If ye or you be
3rd „	If he be	If they be

Past Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I were	If we were
2nd ,,	If thou wert	If ye or you were
3rd ,,	If he were	If they were

Future Tense.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Person	If I should be	If we should be
2nd ,,	If thou shouldst be	If ye or you should be
3rd ,,	If he should be	If they should be

Note.—What has been said about the Past tense in Note to § 186 applies also to "were." The form is past, but the reference is either Present or Future. See § 190 (3).

188. The forms for the Continuous and Perfect tenses in the Active voice are shown below:—

	<i>Continuous.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loving	If I have loved
Past	If I were loving	If I had loved
Future	If I should be loving	If I should have loved

189. In the Passive voice the Indefinite and the Perfect are the only forms of the Subjunctive mood which are in ordinary use:—

	<i>Indefinite.</i>	<i>Perfect.</i>
Present	If I be loved	If I have been loved
Past	If I were loved	If I had been loved
Future	If I should be loved	If I should have been loved

The Uses of the Subjunctive Mood.

190. The Indicative mood expresses a *fact* and sometimes a condition; the Imperative expresses an *order*; the Subjunctive a *purpose*, a *wish*, a *condition*, or a *doubt*.

(1) *A Purpose.*

In this case the verb in the Subjunctive mood is preceded by the conjunction *that* or *lest* (*lest* = *that not*). The Auxiliary verbs "may" and "might" are used after "that," and "should" after "lest."

	<i>Indicative.</i>	<i>Subjunctive; Purpose.</i>
Present	I give you a prize, . . .	that you <i>may</i> work well again.
or		lest you <i>should</i> lose it.
Future	I shall keep your book, . . .	(that you <i>may</i> not lose it.
Past	I gave you a prize, . . .	that you <i>might</i> work well again.
	I kept your book, . . .	lest you <i>should</i> lose it.
		(that you <i>might</i> not lose it.

(2) *A Wish or Order.*

Thy kingdom come = may thy kingdom come.
 I wish that he were as clever as his sister.
 God save the queen. Long live the king.
 Far be it from me to say anything false.
 My sentence is that the prisoner be hanged.

(3) *Condition and its Consequence.*

A Present or Future condition can be expressed in four different ways, all equivalent. The verb in the consequence has *shall* or *should* in the first person, and *will* or *would* in the second and third.

*First Sentence: Condition.**Second Sentence: Consequence.*

Present	If I meet him,	I shall know him at once.
	If I met him,	
or	If I should meet him,	I should know him at once.
	If I were to meet him,	
Future	If I had met me,	he would have known me.
	If I had been in his place,	I should have paid the rupee.

The *if*, when followed by an Auxiliary, can be left out. In this case the *should*, *had*, or *were* must be placed before its subject:—

Present	Should he meet me,	he would know me at once.
	Or	
Future	Were I in his place,	I should pay the rupee.
Past	Had he met me,	he would have known me.
	Had I been in his place,	I should have paid the rupee.

Sometimes the Conditional sentence is left out or understood, and only the Consequent sentence is expressed:—

He would never agree to that ("if you asked him," understood).

(4) *A Doubt or Supposition.*

A verb in the Subjunctive mood, preceded by some conjunction, implies some *doubt* or *supposition*; the Subjunctive mood never expresses a *fact*.

Murder, *though* it have no tongue, will speak.

If he but speak, I will shoot him.

Whether he allow me or not, I will go to him.

Provided he confess his fault, I will pardon him.

Unless he consent, we can do nothing.

Note.—There is, however, a growing tendency in English to substitute the Indicative mood for the Subjunctive, even when the sentence is intended to convey a doubt or supposition.

§ 9.—*INFINITIVE MOOD.*

191. The Infinitive mood is not combined with any Subject, and therefore it has *no number* and *no person*.

This mood names the action, without naming the doer.

The student will remember that verbs in the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative moods are called *Finite*, because they are limited by the number and person of their subject (§ 16 and § 170).

What we have now to consider are those parts of a verb which are not Finite, viz. the Infinitive, the Participle, and the Gerund (§ 17).

192. The forms of the Infinitive mood are four in number, two relating to Present time, and two to Past:—

	Form.	Active Voice.	Passive Voice.
Present	<i>Indefinite</i>	To send	To be sent
	<i>Continuous</i>	To be sending	(Wanting)
Past	<i>Perfect</i>	To have sent	To have been sent
	<i>Perf. Contin.</i>	To have been sending	(Wanting)

There is no Future form of the Infinitive mood.

Future time can be expressed in the Infinitive only by some phrase; as, "to be about to send"; "to be on the point of sending"; "to be going to send."

193. Omission of "to." The word "to" is usually the sign of the Infinitive mood. But it is sometimes omitted.

(a) The "to" is left out after the following Principal verbs:—

Please do this = please to do this.
 I *hear* thee speak (to speak) of a better land.
 I *saw* him take (to take) aim with his bow.
 You *need* not send (to send) those books to me.
 I *feel* the cold air strike (to strike) against my face.
 He *dared* not say (to say) this in open day.
 He *made* me come (to come) and sit (to sit) beside him.
 I *let* him go (to go) back to his own house.
 They *bade* me tell (to tell) them the right road.
 We *watched* him go (to go) and come (to come).
 We *beheld* the fish rise (to rise).
 I have *known* him laugh (to laugh) for nothing.

Note.—The "to" is not always omitted after "dare," when this verb is Affirmative; as, "he dares *to* ..."

(b) The "to" is left out after Aux. and Def. verbs:—

He shall go "	equals	He is ordered to go.
I should go "	"	I ought to go.
I can or could go "	"	I am or was able to go.
I must go "	"	I am compelled to go.
I may or might go "	"	I am or was permitted to go.
I will or would go "	"	I am or was willing to go.
I do or did go "	"	I go or I went.

(c) The "to" can be left out after the adjective "better":—

Better *be* with the dead.—*Shakspeare*.

(= *To be* with the dead (would be) better.)

Better *dwell* in the midst of alarms.—*Couper*.

(d) The "to" is also left out after the verb "had," in such phrases as "had better," "had rather," "had sooner," "had as soon . . . as."

You had better not *remain* here.
 I had rather *take* this than that.
 I had sooner *run* than *walk*.
 I had as soon *run* as *walk*.

Note.—"Had" is here used in a Subjunctive sense = would have. "I had better not remain here," means "I would have (it) better not to remain here"; that is, "It would be better for me not to remain."

(e) The "to" is left out after the conjunction "than":—

He is better able to *walk* than *run* = (than he is able to *run*).

(f) The "to" is left out after the preposition "but," provided it is preceded by the verb "do":—

He *did* nothing but *laugh* (= to laugh).

The two kinds of Infinitive.

194. There are two kinds of Infinitives, the forms of which are identical, though their uses are so different as to represent different parts of speech:—

I. The Noun-Infinitive; sometimes called the Simple.

II. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.

Note.—In Old English the Simple Infinitive was a *Noun* and had no such word as "to" before it; while a *Gerund* in the sense of purpose was expressed by the preposition "to," followed by an inflected case of the Noun-Infinitive. This accounts for the names "Noun-Infinitive" and "Gerundial Infinitive." But the "to" is now usually given to the Noun-Infinitive also.

195. The Noun-Infinitive may be used—(a) as Subject to a verb; (b) as Object to a verb; (c) as Complement to a verb; (d) as Object to certain prepositions; or (e) as a form of exclamation:—

(a) Subject to a verb:—

To err (=error) is human; *to forgive* (=forgiveness) is divine.

(b) Object to a verb:—

They expect *to succeed* (=success).

A good man does not fear *to die* (=death).

(c) Complement to a verb:—

He appears *to be* a wise man. (*Intransitive.*)

They ordered him *to be punished*. (*Factive.*)

I did *go*; I should *go*; I may *go*; I might *go*, etc. (*Auxiliary.*)

(d) Object to the prepositions named below :—

He was *about* (=near) *to die* (=death).

They came *for to see* (=for seeing) the sport.

They desired nothing *except or but to succeed* (=success).

He did nothing *else than laugh*.

Note.—Such a phrase as “*for to see*” is now obsolete, though it occurs in the New Testament. The “*for*” is now always omitted, and the Noun-Infinitive then becomes the Gerundial.

(e) As a form of exclamation :—

Foolish fellow! *to suppose* that he could be pardoned!

Note.—In this construction the Infinitive is absolute (§ 28, b).

196. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive can be used (a) to qualify a verb, (b) to qualify a noun, (c) to qualify an adjective, (d) to introduce a parenthesis :—

(a) To qualify a verb, in the sense of *purpose, cause, or result* :—

He came *to see* (for the purpose of seeing) the sport. (*Purpose.*)

He wept *to see* (because of seeing) that sight. (*Cause.*)

He worked hard *only to be* (with the result of being) defeated at last. (*Result.*)

(b) To qualify a noun, in the sense of *purpose*. The Infinitive may be either attributive or predicative (§ 102).

{ A house *to let*. (*Attributive use.*)

{ This house is *to let*. (*Predicative use. Complement to Verb.*)

{ Give him a chair *to sit on*. (*Attributive use.*)

{ Your condition is *to be pitied*. (*Predicative use.*)

Note.—Whenever the verb is Intransitive, as “*sit*,” it must always be followed by a preposition. We cannot say “*a chair to sit*.”

(c) To qualify an adjective, in the sense of *respect or purpose* :—

Quick *to hear* and slow *to speak*.

“Quick” in what respect or for what purpose? To hear. “Slow in what respect or for what purpose? To speak.

(d) To introduce a Parenthesis; that is, a phrase thrust into the middle of a sentence by way of comment on something said :—

I am,—*to tell* you the truth,—quite tired of this work.

They were thunderstruck,—so *to speak*,—on hearing this news.

Note.—In (a) and (c) the Gerundial Infinitive does the work of an adverb. In (b) it does the work of an adjective. In (d) it is absolute: see § 28 (b).

§ 10.—PARTICIPLES.

197. The forms of the different Participles are as shown below:—

Transitive Verbs.

<i>Present or Continuous</i>	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Past</i>	Loving (Wanting)	Being loved
<i>Perfect</i>	Having loved	Loved Having been loved

Intransitive Verbs.

<i>Present or Continuous</i>	<i>Active Voice.</i>	<i>Passive Voice.</i>
<i>Past</i>	Fading	Faded
<i>Perfect</i>	Having faded	

198. Double Character of Participles.—It was shown in § 18 that a Participle is a double part of speech—a verb and an adjective combined. We have now, therefore, to describe it in each of these characters:—

- (1) As part of a Finite verb.
- (2) As an Adjective qualifying some noun.

I. *As part of a Finite verb.*

199. The student will have seen already that many of the tenses of English verbs are formed with the help of the Past or Present Participle.

Thus all the tenses of the Passive voice are formed out of the verb "to be" followed by the Past Participle; as, "I am loved," "I was loved," "I shall be loved."

Again, all the Continuous tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb "to be," followed by the Present Participle; as, "I am loving," "I was loving," "I shall be loving."

Again, the Perfect tenses in the Active voice are formed out of the verb "to have," followed by the Past Participle; as, "I have loved," "I had loved," "I shall have loved."

II. *As an Adjective.*

200. A Participle, when it is an adjective, belongs to the class of Descriptive (§ 90). Like other such adjectives, it can (a) qualify a noun, (b) be qualified by an adverb, (c) admit of degrees of comparison, (d) be used as a noun:—

- (a) *Being tired of work, the men went home.*
- (b) *The man was picked up in an almost dying state.*
- (c) *This flower is more faded than that.*
- (d) *Let bygones be bygones.*
We cannot undo the past.

201. Since a Participle is a verb as well as an adjective, it can take an Object, which may be of five kinds (§ 164):—

Having shot *the tiger*, he returned home. (*Direct Obj.*)

He is here, teaching *his sons* Greek. (*Indirect Obj.*)

Having been taught *Greek*, he was a good scholar. (*Retained Obj.*)

We saw them fighting a hard *battle*. (*Cognate Obj.*)

Having sat *himself* down, he began to eat. (*Reflexive Obj.*)

202. Past Participle.—The use of such participles depends upon whether the verb is Transitive or Intransitive:—

(a) If the verb is *Transitive*, the Past Participle is never used in the Active voice, but only in the Passive:—

This much-praised man proved to be a rogue.

Gold is a metal dug out of the earth.

(b) If the verb is *Intransitive*, the Past Participle is not used at all in most verbs. But whenever it is used—(a matter depending entirely on custom), it must precede its noun, and not follow it:—

The faded rose. A failed candidate. A retired officer. The returned soldier. The dead horse. The fallen city. The risen sun. A withered flower. A departed guest.

If the speaker or writer desires to place the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb *after* its noun, he must insert the Relative pronoun and change the participle into a Finite verb; as—

The horse of Mr. A., proceeded to England, is for sale. (This is wrong. The sentence should be—"The horse of Mr. A., who has proceeded to England, is for sale.")

Correct the following:—

There is now no scent in the rose faded this morning.

Lumps are lighted from oil risen out of the earth.

This was the sword of the soldier returned to his country.

I am sorry for the candidate failed in the last examination.

But the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb is sometimes put after its noun in poetry.

A Daniel come to judgment.—*Shakspeare*.

Mourn for the brave—the brave that are no more,

All sunk beneath the wave, laid by their native shore.—*Couper*.

Even in prose the Past Participle of an Intransitive verb is sometimes, but very rarely, placed after its noun:—

In times *past* = in times which have passed.

He is a man *descended* from a high family.

These are very exceptional cases and should not be imitated.

203. The Past Participle of verbs is sometimes used to express some *permanent habit, state, or character* :—

A *well-read* man = a man who has read much and read well.

A *well-behaved* man = a man whose habitual behaviour is good.

An *out-spoken* man = a man who habitually speaks out his mind.

A *retired* man = a man who makes a habit of retiring from public notice, a man of a retiring disposition.

From this use of the Past Participle has arisen a large class of Adjectives, which are formed from nouns by adding "ed" to the end of the noun.

An *evil-heart-ed* man. A *hot-head-ed* man. A *land-ed* proprietor.

A *long-tail-ed* ape. A *smooth-skin-ed* cat. His *saint-ed* mother.

A *red-colour-ed* rose. A *rough-face-d* youth. A *hood-ed* snake.

A *long-leg-ed* spider. A *purple-crest-ed* helmet. A *many-page-d* book.

A *long-arm-ed* monkey. A *thickly-wool-ed* hill. A *noble-mind-ed* man.

A *warm-blood-ed* animal.

204. Meanings implied in Participles.—Participles must be parsed as Verbal Adjectives qualifying their nouns. But sometimes there is a further *meaning implied* in them, which can be more fully expressed by changing the participial phrase into a clause.

The implied meanings are (a) Time, (b) Cause or Reason, (c) Condition, (d) Concession or Contrast.

(a) *Time.*

Walking along the street (=while I was walking), I met a friend.

Having met my friend (=after I had met my friend), I went back with him to his house.

(b) *Cause or Reason.*

Being tired with the toil (=because he was tired), he sat down to rest.

The letter, *having been addressed* (=because it was addressed) to the wrong house, never reached me.

(c) *Condition.*

Turning to the left (=if you turn to the left), you will find the place you want.

(d) *Concession or Contrast.*

Admitting (=though I admit) what you say, I still think that you made a mistake.

He being dead (=although he is dead), yet speaketh.—*New Testament.*

§ 11.—GERUNDS AND VERBAL NOUNS.

205. A Gerund has four forms—two for the Active voice and two for the Passive.

	<i>Active.</i>	<i>Passive.</i>
Present or Continuous	Loving	Being loved
Perfect	Having loved	Having been loved

206. The *forms* of a Gerund, then, are the same as those of a Participle, and both are parts of a verb. What, then, is the difference? A Gerund is a kind of *Noun*; but a Participle is a kind of *Adjective*. So in spite of the resemblance in *form*, they are quite distinct in *nature*.¹

The reason of the resemblance in form is a matter of history. In Old English the *forms* of the Verbal Adjective and Verbal Noun were quite distinct.

Participle	:	:	:	<i>Writende</i>
Gerund	:	:	:	<i>Writung</i>

In later English the two suffixes, *ende* and *ung*, both gradually took the form of *ing*, and hence we have now only one form instead of two for the two parts of speech.

Participle	:	:	:	<i>Writing</i>
Gerund	:	:	:	<i>Writing</i>

207. Double character of Gerunds.—It was shown in § 18 that a Gerund is a double part of speech—a noun and verb combined. We have now therefore to describe it in each of these characters:—

- (1) As a kind of Noun.
- (2) As part of a Verb.

Since a Gerund is a *kind of noun*, it must be the subject to some verb (Transitive or Intransitive); or the object to some verb (Transitive); or the complement to some verb (Intransitive or Factitive); or the object to some preposition; as—

Subject to a verb.—*Sleeping* is necessary to life.

Object to a verb.—He enjoyed *sleeping* in the open air.

Complement to a verb.—His almost constant habit was *sleeping*.

Object to a preposition.—He was fond of *sleeping*.

In the following sentences say whether the words noted below are Gerunds or Participles:—

¹ In some grammars the Gerund is called a *Participial noun*. This name should be avoided, since a *Noun* is one part of speech and a *Participle* is another.

The rice will grow well in the *coming* rains. We heard of his *coming* back to-day. Did you hear of his *having won* a prize? The boy *having won* a prize was much praised. She was fond of *being admired*. *Being admired* by all she was much pleased. The cow *having been killed* by a tiger yesterday could not be found. The boy was ashamed of *having been beaten* in class by his sister. I am tired of *doing* this work. *Doing* this work every day you will soon improve. *Spelling* is more difficult than *writing*. He was in the habit of *boasting* of his cleverness. A *boasting* man is much despised.

208. A Gerund an Abstract Noun.—It has been explained already in § 44, that a Gerund is a kind of Abstract noun, and has the same meaning as an Abstract noun proper or as a Noun-Infinitive:—

Gerund.—*Sleeping* is necessary to health.

Noun-Inf..—*To sleep* is necessary to health.

Abstract Noun.—*Sleep* is necessary to health.

209. Gerund with an Object.—Since a Gerund is a *part of some verb*, it can take an object after it, which may be of any of the five kinds shown in § 164, Note.

Direct (with Trans.).—He is clever at teaching *Euclid*.

Indirect (with Trans.).—He is clever at teaching *his sons* Euclid.

Retained (with Passive).—He is pleased at being taught *Euclid*.

Cognate (with Intrans.).—He is proud of *having fought* a good *fight*.

Reflexive (with Intrans.).—He is in the habit of oversleeping *himself*.

210. Gerund with Possessives.—A noun or pronoun, provided it denotes a person or other animal, must be in the Possessive case, when it is placed before a Gerund:—

I was pleased at *his* coming to-day. (It is not so good to say, “I was pleased at *him* coming to-day.”)

He was displeased at the *barber's* not coming. (It is not so good to say, “He was displeased at the *barber* not coming.”)

It is a common mistake of Indian students to say:—“I ask *your* favour of doing this.” This is not in correct idiom. The sentence should be—“I ask the favour of *your* doing this.”

Note 1.—The following use of a Gerund preceded by a Possessive noun or pronoun sometimes occurs:—

This was a work of *my doing* (=done by me).

Note 2.—Sometimes the letter “*a*” (an abbreviation of “*on*”) is placed before a Gerund in a prepositional sense:—

This set him *a* (=on) *thinking*.

Note 3.—The Possessive “*its*,” even though its antecedent denotes an *inanimate* object, should always be used with a Gerund. The use of “*it*” is against idiom.

The *wall* fell; I am vexed at *its* having fallen.

211. **Gerundive use of Participles.**—Such participles are not Gerunds, but participles used in a Gerundive sense:—

I depend on the wall *being built* immediately.

Now if "wall" could be put into the Possessive case, we should say, "I depend on the *wall's* being built immediately." But as this cannot be done (see § 64), we are compelled to say—

I depend on the *wall* being built immediately.

How are we to parse "being built" in such a connection? It is not enough to say that it is an ordinary participle; for it does more than qualify the noun "wall." The sentence does not mean "I depend on the wall," but "I depend on the *wall being built* immediately," that is, "on the immediate *building of* the wall." There is therefore a gerund or gerundial noun implied in the participle "being built," and hence such participles can be called Gerundive Participles.

212. A Verbal noun is the same thing at bottom as a Gerund, but a distinction has been drawn between them.

A Verbal noun is preceded by the Definite article and followed by the preposition "of"; whereas a Gerund has no article preceding it and no preposition following it. The former construction is the original one. The latter is modern, and arose simply out of the omission of the preposition "of."

(a) I am engaged in *the* careful reading of a book. (*Verbal Noun.*)
 (b) I am engaged in *carefully* reading a book. (*Gerund.*)

In (a) "reading" is a *single* part of speech,—a noun and nothing more. In (b) "reading" is a *double* part of speech,—a noun and verb combined. Observe too that the Verbal noun is qualified by an **Adjective** (careful), and the Gerund by an **Adverb** (carefully).

Note 1.—Sometimes the "of" is left out, even when there is a Definite article going before:—

The *giving* to the courts the power to review hard and unconscionable bargains will control the rest.—*Review of Reviews*, August 1898, p. 165.

Here there is no "of" after the word "giving." In such a construction we cannot distinguish between a Verbal noun and a Gerund.

Note 2.—The Abstract noun, which we call a Verbal noun or a Gerund, is sometimes used in a concrete sense:—

I am pleased with my *surroundings*.
 He went away with all his *belongings*.

Parsing Models for Verbs.

(1) *The horse was taken to the stable.*

Was taken—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood, passive voice of the verb “to take,” agreeing with its nominative case or subject “horse.”

(2) *The man and his friend walked into the field.*

Walked—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past tense (indefinite), indicative mood of the verb “to walk,” agreeing with its two subjects “man” and “friend.”

(3) *I have long been absent from home.*

Have been—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, present perfect tense, indicative mood of the verb “to be,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

(4) *I shall go home, but you will stop here.*

Shall go—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to go,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Will stop—Verb intransitive, second person, singular number, future tense, indicative mood of the verb “to stop,” agreeing with its subject “you.”

(5) *Take a seat on this bench.*

Take—Verb transitive, second person, singular number, imperative mood of the verb “to take,” agreeing with its subject “thou” or “you” understood.

(6) *Were I in his place, I would pay the rupee.*

Were—Verb intransitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to be,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

Would pay—Verb transitive, first person, singular number, past tense, subjunctive mood of the verb “to pay,” agreeing with its subject “I.”

(7) *You need not send those books to me.*

Send—Verb transitive, infinitive mood, object to the verb “need.”

(8) *Having found his friend he was much pleased.*

Having found—Verb transitive, perfect participle of the verb “to find,” qualifying the pronoun “he.”

(9) *He was much pleased at having found his friend.*

Having found—Verb transitive, perfect form of gerund of the verb “to find,” object to the preposition “at.”

§ 12.—THE CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

213. To "conjugate" a verb is to show its chief parts.

Note.—The term "conjugation" is sometimes used in a wider sense to denote *all* the inflections and combinations that are employed to indicate Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

The chief parts of a verb in English are the Present tense, the Past tense, and the Past Participle; all the other parts, Active and Passive, can be easily formed from these three.

214. There are two main kinds of Conjugation:—

I. The *Strong* (now much less numerous than it once was), which forms the past tense by changing the *inside vowel* of the present, and without adding the suffix *-d*, or *-t*, or *-ed* for this purpose; as, *bear, bore*.

II. The *Weak* (now much more numerous than the Strong), which forms the past tense and past participle by adding *-d*, or *-t*, or *-ed* to the present, with or without a change of the inside vowel; as, *love, loved, loved*.¹

The student will therefore observe that vowel-change in the Past tense is not the *decisive* mark of the Strong conjugation but the absence of a suffix to form the Past tense.

1. *The Strong Conjugation.*

215. The Strong verbs are conjugated by internal changes, the nature of which is too various to be reduced to a single rule.

The most general process consists in (1) changing the inside vowel for the Past tense, and (2) adding *en*, *n*, or *ne* for the Past Participle.

216. Formerly *all* verbs of the Strong Conjugation formed the Past Participle by adding *en*, *n*, *ne*; but many of them have now laid aside this suffix.

¹ Some grammarians distinguish verbs into Regular and Irregular. The Regular answer to the Weak, and the Irregular to the Strong. But these names are misleading; for in point of fact the Strong conjugation is not less regular than the Weak; only its rules are less perfectly known, and some of them have fallen into disuse.

The Strong conjugation contains no verbs but such as are of the primary Anglo-Saxon stock. All the verbs belonging to this conjugation (except a few that have had a prefix added to them) are monosyllabic.

Whenever new verbs are coined in English, or foreign ones are introduced, they invariably take the form of the Weak conjugation.

Hence the Strong verbs, as they now exist, fall into two main groups :—

(1) Those which have retained } the *en*, *n*, or *ne* in the
 (2) Those which have lost } Past Participle.

Besides these two groups there is a third, consisting of Mixed verbs, that have become Weak either in the Past tense or the Past Participle, but not in both. They are, however, classed among Strong verbs, because they have retained at least one mark of the Strong conjugation, and were entirely Strong in Old English.

Group I.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Arise	arose	arisen
Bear (produce)	bore	born
Bear (carry)	bore	borne
Beget	begot, begat	begotten, begot
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, biā
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bind	bound	*bounden, bound
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Draw	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	*drunken, drunk
Drive	drove, drove	driven
Eat	ate	eaten
Fall	fell	fallen
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get	got	*gotten, got
Give	gave	given
Go, wend	went	gone
Grow	grew	grown
Hide	hid	*hidden, hid
Know	knew	known
Lie	lay	lain
Ride	rode	ridden
Rise	rose	risen
See	saw	seen
Shake	shook	shaken
Shrink	shrank	*shrunken, shrunk
Sink	sank	*sunken, sunk
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slidden, slid

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Smite	smote	smitten, smit
Speak	spoke, spake	spoken
Steal	stole	stolen
Stride	strode	stridden
Strike	struck	*stricken, struck
Strive	strove	striven
Swear	swore	sworn
Take	took	taken
Tear	tore	torn
Throw	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Write	wrote	written

Note.—The seven participles marked * are now chiefly used as verbal adjectives only, and not as parts of some tense:—

Verbal Adjective.

Our *bounden* duty.
A *drunken* man.
A *sunken* ship.
A *stricken* deer.
The *shrunken* stream.
Ill-gotten wealth.
A *hidden* meaning.

Part of some Tense.

He was *bound* by his promise.
He had *drunk* much wine.
The ship had *sunk* under the water.
The deer was *struck* with an arrow.
The stream has *shrunk* in its bed.
He has *got* wealth by ill means.
The meaning is *hid* (or hidden).

Group II.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Abide	abode	abode
Awake	awoke	awoke
Become	became	become
Begin	began	begun
Behold	beheld	beheld, beholde ⁿ ¹
Cling	clung	clung
Come	came	come
Dig	dug	dug
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Fling	flung	flung
Grind	ground	ground
Hold	held	held
Ring	rang	rung
Run	ran	run
Shine	shone	shone
Sing	sang	sung
Sit	sat	sat
Sling	slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk

¹ "Beholde" means "indebted."

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Spin	spun	spun
Spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
Stand	stood	stood
Stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stink	stank	stunk
String	strung	strung
Swim	swam	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Win	won	won
Wind	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung

Group III.—Mixed Verbs.

217. Such verbs are partly Strong and partly Weak :—

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Beat	beat	beaten
Cleave (split)	clove, cleft	*cloven, cleft
Climb	clomb, climbed	climbed
Crow	crew, crowed	crown, crowed
Do	did (irregular)	done
Grave	graved	*graven, graved
Hang ¹	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
Hew	hewed	hewn
Lade	laded	laden
Melt	melted	*molten, melted
Mow	mowed	mown
Prove	proved	†proven, proved
Rive	rived	riven
Rot	rotted	*rotten, rotted
Saw	sawed	sawn
Seethe	seethed	*sodden, seethed
Sew	sewed	sewn
Shape	shaped	†shapen, shaped
Shave	shaved	shaven
Shear	sheared	*shorn, sheared
Show	showed	shown
Sow	sowed	sown
Stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
Strew	strewed	strewn or strown
Swell	swelled	swollen
Thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
Wash	washed	*washed, washed
Writhe	writhed	†writhen, writhed

¹ The Intransitive verb is conjugated in the Strong form only. The Transitive verb is conjugated in both forms. *Hanged* means "killed by hanging"; as, "The man was hanged." *Hung* is used in a general sense; as, "He hung up his coat."

Note 1.—The participles marked * are now chiefly used as Verbal adjectives, and not as parts of some Tense:—

Verbal Adjective.

- A graven image.
- A molten image.
- A rotten plank.
- The sodden flesh.
- A shorn lamb.
- A well-sewn cloth.
- Un-washen hands.
- A hewn log.

Part of some Tense.

- The image was engraved with letters.
- The image was melted with heat.
- The plank was rotted by water.
- The flesh was seethed in hot water.
- The lamb was sheared to-day.
- I have sewed or sevn it.
- I have washed my hands.
- The log is hewed or hewn.

Note 2.—The participles marked † are now seldom seen except in poetry.

The Weak Conjugation.

218. The mode of adding the suffix of the Past tense is not uniform.

(1) If the verb ends in *e*, then *d* only is added, and not *ed*; as—

Live, lived (not liveed).

Clothe, clothed (not clotheed).

To this rule there is no exception.

(2) The final consonant is doubled before *ed*, provided (a) that it is *single*, (b) that it is preceded by a *single vowel*, (c) that the verb is *monosyllabic* or has the final syllable *accented*.

Fan, fanned (not faned); drop, dropped (not droped).

Compel, compelled; control, controlled.

But in a verb like *lengthen*, where the accent is not on the last syllable, the Past tense is *lengthened*; in a verb like *boil*, where the vowel is not single, the Past tense is *boiled*; and in a verb like *fold*, where the last consonant is not single, the Past tense is *folded*.

To this rule there are very few exceptions. One exception occurs in the final *l*. The final *l* is doubled, even when it is not accented; as *travel, travelled (not traveled)*. But the final *l* is not doubled, if it has two vowels going before it; as, *travail, travailed (not travailed)*.

219. Some verbs of the Weak Conjugation form the Past tense in “*t*,” and if the vowel of the Present is a long one, they usually shorten it:—

Present Tense. *Past Tense.* *Past Participle.*

Creep	crept	crept
Sleep	slept	slept
Sweep	swept	swept
Keep	kept	kept
Weep	wept	wept
Burn	burnt	burnt
Deal (dēl)	dēlt	dēlt
Dream (drēm)	drēmt or dreamed	drēmt or dreamed
Dwell	dwellt	dwellt

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Feel	felt	felt
Kneel	knelt	knelt
Smell	smelt	smelt
Spell	spelt	spelt
Lean (lēn)	lēant or leaned	lēant or leaned
Mean (mēn)	mēant	mēant
Spill	spilt	split
Spoil	spoilt or spoiled	spoilt or spoiled

Exceptional Verbs.—Make, made, made. Have, had, had. Hear, heard, heard. Leave, left, left. Cleave, cleft, cleft. Lose, lost, lost. Shoe, shēd, shod. Flee, fled, fled. Say, said, said. Lay, laid, laid. Pay, paid, paid.

220. Some Weak verbs undergo a change of inside vowel. This, however, does not make them Strong verbs. They are Weak without any doubt, because they form the Past tense with the suffix *-d* or *-t*. (See § 214.)

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Beseech	besought	besought
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Catch	caught	caught
Seek	sought	sought
Sell	sold	sold
Teach	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Work	worked	*wrought, worked
Owe	ought, owed	owed
Dare	durst or dared	dared
Can	could	(Wanting)
Shall	should	(Wanting)
Will	would	(Wanting)
May	might	(Wanting)

221. Verbs ending in *d* or *t* in the Present tense have discarded the suffix of the Past tense to avoid the repetition of *d* or *t*.

(a) Some verbs in this group have the three forms (Present tense, Past tense, and Past Participle) all exactly alike:—

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Let	let	let
Put	put	put
Rid	rid	rid

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Set	set	set
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Slit	slit	slit
Spit	spit or spat	spit
Split	split	split
Spread	spread	spread
Sweat	sweat	sweat
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Bet.	bet	bet
Two forms	Quit Wed Knit	quit or quitted wed or wedded knit or knitted
		quit or quitted wed or wedded knit or knitted

(b) Other verbs in this group end in *d* in the Present tense, but form the Past tense and Past Participle by changing *d* into *t*. (There are at least nine such verbs in English.)

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Bend	bent	bent
Build	built	built
Gild	gilt, gilded	gilt
Gird	girt, girded	girt
Lend	lent	lent
Rend	rent	rent
Send	sent	sent
Spend	spent	spent
Wend	went, wended	wended

(c) Other verbs of this group have the three forms all alike except that they shorten the vowel in the Past tense and Past Participle:—

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Feed	fed	fed
Speed	sped	sped
Meet	met	met
Lead	led	led
Read	read	read
Light	lit, lighted	lit, lighted
Shoot	shot	shot

Note.—The following differences in the use of participles as adjectives or as parts of a tense should be noted:—

Verbal Adjective.

A lighted candle.

Roast meat.

Wrought iron.

Part of Some Tense.

The candle is lit or lighted.

The meat is roasted.

The horse is worked too hard.

§ 13.—CONJUGATION OF AUXILIARY, DEFECTIVE, AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

(1) Be.

		Singular.			Plural.
		1	2	3	1 2 3
Present	Indicative.	am	art	is	are
	Subjunctive	be	be	be	be
Past	Indicative.	was	wast	was	were
	Subjunctive	were	wert	were	were

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To be	be	being	having been

This verb is used in three different ways :—

(a) As an Intransitive verb of *Complete Predication*, in the sense of mere existence :—

God *is* = God exists.

There *are* many men, who, etc. = Many men exist, who, etc.

(b) As an Intransitive verb of *Incomplete Predication* :—

A horse *is* a four-legged animal.

This coat *was* of many colours.

(c) As an Auxiliary verb :—

All the tenses in Passive verbs and all the Continuous tenses in Active ones are formed by the help of the verb *to be*.

(2) Have.

		Singular.			Plural.
		1	2	3	1 2 3
Present	Indicative.	have	hast	has	have
	Subjunctive	have	have	have	have
Past	Indicative.	had	hadst	had	had
	Subjunctive	had	hadst	had	had

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To have	have	having	having had

This verb is used in two different senses :—

(a) As a Transitive verb, denoting possession. In this sense it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

We have (=we possess) four cows and twenty sheep.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb :—

All the Perfect tenses, in all the Moods, Active and Passive, are formed by the help of this verb.

(3) Shall.

	Singular.			Plural.
Present . . .	1 shall	2 shalt	3 shall	1 2 3 shall should
Past . . .	should	shouldst	should	

There are no other tenses, and there is no Infinitive mood to this verb. It is used in four different senses :—

(a) As an Auxiliary verb, in a merely *Future* sense :—

The *first* person of the Future Indicative is formed by *shall*, and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *should*; as, "I shall go," "if he should go."

(b) As a Principal verb (Trans.), in the sense of *command* :—

In the *second* and *third* persons of the Future; as, "thou shall not steal" (see § 178, b). The Infinitive "steal" is its object.

(c) As a Principal verb (Transitive), in the sense of *duty* :—

"Should," and not "shall," is used in the sense of duty. (Here the force of the verb is not Subjunctive, but Indicative.)

Present.—I *should* do (=it is my duty to do) this.

Past.—I *should* have done this; (it was my duty to do this, but I failed to do it). The Infinit. *do* and *have done* are objects of *should*.

In the following sentence "should" is used in the sense of inference, rather than in that of duty :—

He *should* have arrived by this time.

That is, "It may be inferred, according to the ordinary course of events, that he has arrived by this time."

(d) As an Auxiliary verb, in the sense of purpose, but only after the conjunction "lest," and only in the form of "should" (see § 396, Note) :—

He worked hard *lest* he should fail.

(4) Will.

	Singular.			Plural.
<i>Present</i> . .	1 will	2 wilt	3 will	1 2 3 will will
<i>Past</i> . .	{ would willed	{ wouldst willest	{ would willed	would willed
Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.	
To will	...	willing	having willed	

This verb is used in several different senses:—

(a) As an Auxiliary verb, in a merely *Future* sense :—

The *second* and *third* persons of the Future Indicative are formed by *will*; and any person of the Subjunctive can be formed by *would*.

(b) As a Principal verb (Transitive) in the sense of *intend* (see § 178, c). The Infinitive following is its object.

I will not steal = I do not intend to steal.

To will is present with me; but what I will (=wish or intend to do) I do not, and what I will not, that I do. —New Testament.

Note.—The phrase “*would-be*” is elliptical, and is used as an adjective:—

A would-be murderer (a man who wished or intended to be a murderer, but was prevented).

(c) As a Principal verb (Transitive), in the sense of *habit*. In this sense "will" has the force of a Present Indicative, and "would" of a Past Indicative. The Infinitive following is its object.

When frightened, an elephant *will* burst (=is in the habit of bursting) away with a rush.

He *would* come (= was in the habit of coming) every day.

(d) As a Principal verb (Transitive), in the sense of leaving property by a written document or "will." In this sense the Past tense is *willed*, and not *would* :—

He willed (=decided by his written will or testament) that all his property should go to his daughter.

(5) Do.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	do	dost	does	do
Past . . .	did	didst	did	did
Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.	
To do	do	doing	having done	

This verb is used in three different senses :—

(a) As a Principal verb (Transitive) in the sense of "perform." In this sense it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

I am now *doing* what you *have done* already.

(b) As an Auxiliary verb, declined only in the Present and Past tenses :—

Do and *did* are used as auxiliaries to the Present and Past tenses, Indicative, of other verbs for the sake of *emphasis*, for the sake of using a *negative*, and for the sake of *asking a question* (see examples given in § 175).

On the uses of *do* in the Imperative, see § 182.

(c) As a Pro-verb or Substitute-verb, to avoid the repetition of a previous verb. In this sense it can be used in any mood or tense :—

You need not work so hard as you *did* (=worked) yesterday.

(6) May.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	may	mayest	may	may
Past . . .	might	mightest	might	might

This verb has two different uses :—

(a) As a Principal verb, Transitive, with Infin. as object :—

He *might* have gone. (*Possibility* or *Permission*.)

(b) As an Auxiliary, for forming a Subjunctive :—

He works that he *may* live. (*Purpose.*)
May heaven protect thee! (*Wish.*)

The six verbs hitherto named,—*be, have, shall, will, do, may*,—are the only ones that can be used as Auxiliaries. All of them, as has been shown, can be also used as Principal verbs in certain contexts.

(7) **Can.**

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present . . .	Can	canst	can	can
Past . . .	Could	couldst	could	could

This is a Transitive verb, used in two different senses :—

(a) In the sense of permission :—

You *can* (=are permitted to) go or not, as you like.

(b) In the sense of power or ability :—

He *cannot* (=is unable to) run as fast as you.

He *could* (=would be able to) do this, if he tried.

Note.—The verb *can* in some grammars is said to constitute a separate mood, which is called the *Potential*. But this is a mistake. It is never Auxiliary, always Principal, and the Infin. following is its object.

(8) **Ought.**

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	1 2 3
Present or Past .	Ought	oughtest	ought	ought

This verb is, in its origin, the Past tense of the verb *owe*; as, “you *ought* (=owed) him a thousand pounds.” It is now used only in the sense of *duty*. The verb “*ought*” is Transitive, and the Infin. following is its object.

Present.—You *ought to do* this; (and you are expected to do it).

Past.—You *ought to have done* this; (but you did not do it).

(9) Must.

This verb has now no varieties of form.

It is, in its origin, the Past tense of an old verb *motan*, "to be obliged." The Infin. following is its object.

"Must" now relates, not to Past, but to Present or Future time, and is used in four different senses:—

(a) In the sense of necessity or *compulsion*:—

What *must* come, *must*.

(b) In the sense of a very strong *intention*:—

I *must* finish this, before I go.

(c) In the sense of *certainty* or a very strong *inference*:—

He *must* be dead by this time.

(d) In the sense of *duty* or a very strong *obligation*:—

We *must* pay our debts.

(10) Dare.

	Singular.			Plural.
	1	2	3	
Present . . .	dare	darest	dares	dare
Past . . .	{ durst dared	{ durst dared	{ dare dared	{ durst dared

Infinitive.	Imperative.	Present Participle.	Perfect Participle.
To dare	dare	daring	having dared

This verb is used in two senses:—

(a) As a verb of Incomplete Predication in the sense of *having courage*. In this sense the Third present Singular is "dare," and not "dares," provided it is followed by a Negative:—

He *dare* not (= has not the courage to) leave the room. (Negative.)

He *dares* to leave the room. (Affirmative.)

In the Past tense, provided it is followed by a Negative, "durst" is used, and sometimes "dared":—

He *durst* not (or *dared* not) leave the room.

But if the verb is affirmative, we use "dared" and not "durst." The idiom "I *dare* say" simply means "perhaps."

(b) As a Transitive verb in the sense of *challenging*. When the verb is used in this sense, it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses :—

He *dares* me (=challenges me) to fight.
He *dared* me (=challenged me) to my face.

(11) Quoth.

This verb is the Past tense of an old verb, which is now obsolete except in the compound form of *be-queath*.

It means "says," or "said," and therefore stands equally for Past and Pres. time. Used only in the First and Third Persons and only in the Singular number. It always stands before its subject :—

"Let me not live," *quoth* he.—*Shakspeare*.

(12) Need.

This is a Principal or independent verb, signifying "require," "want." As such it is declined regularly in all the moods and tenses.

The Third person Singular is *need*, and not *needs*, just as *dare* is used for *dares*, provided it is followed by a Negative :—

He *need* not (=is under no necessity to) do any more work.

In such a phrase as "he must *needs* do this," *needs* is really a Possessive case, with the apostrophe before the *s* omitted. So *needs* =*need's* = of *need* = of necessity = necessarily. *Needs* has therefore become an Adverb (see § 235).

(13) Worth.

This verb occurs in such a phrase as "woe *worth* the day," which means "woe be to the day." The noun "day" is in the Objective case. (This in Old English would have been the Dative.)

Worth is here the Subjunctive mood (in the sense of wish, see § 190, 2) of an old verb signifying "to become."

(14) Wit.

This verb signifies "to know." Only a few of its forms have survived; the rest have become obsolete.

(a) The Infinitive form *to wit*, in the sense of "namely." This is much used in legal documents at the present day :—

He left me by will all his land, *to wit*, the three farms.

(b) The Present Participle has survived in the negative ad. verbal form of *unwittingly*, which means "unknowingly."

You cannot blame him for this, since he did it *unwittingly*.

(c) Two forms of the Indicative have survived:—

Present.—He *wot* neither what he babbles nor what he means.—*Tyn dall*.

Past.—They *wist* not what had become of him.—*New Testament*.

(15) Beware.

This is compounded of *be+ware*. "Ware" is an old form of the adjective "wary," and is complement to the verb "be."

The form "beware" is the only one used. It can be preceded by auxiliary verbs, or by "to," as "to beware."

(16) Wont.

This is the Past Participle of an obsolete verb, which signified "to continue." Hence "wont" means "accustomed."

(17) Hight.

The Past Participle of an obsolete verb, which signified "to call or name."

(18) Yelept.

The Past Participle of the obsolete verb "elepe," to call or name. The *y* is a prefix without meaning.

(19) Impersonal Verbs.

Verbs are said to be **Impersonal**, or to be used impersonally, when they take "it" for their subject, and are followed by some Personal pronoun in the Objective case:—

It shames me to hear this=I am ashamed to hear this.

It repents me of my folly=I repent of my folly.

It behoves me to do this=I ought to do this.

There are three instances in which the *it* is omitted, and the pronoun in the Objective case is placed *before* the verb instead of after it:—

Methinks=it thinks me=I think.

Meseems=it seems to me.

Melists=it seems to me, or it pleases me.

The following phrase is elliptical:—

So please your Majesty.—*Shakespeare*.

This means, "If *it* so please your Majesty"; that is, "if *your* Majesty so please or so desire."

CHAPTER VI.—ADVERBS.

§ 1.—THE KINDS OF ADVERBS.

222. **Adverb defined.**—An Adverb is a word used to qualify any part of speech except a noun or pronoun (§ 12).

Note.—The definition given in other grammars is:—“An adverb is a word used to qualify a verb, adjective, or other adverb.”¹

But this is evidently wrong, since an adverb may, and very often does, qualify Prepositions and Conjunctions:—

(a) **Prepositions:**—

The bird flew *exactly* over the sleeper’s head.

He paid the money *quite up* to date.

This mistake was made *entirely through* your fault.

He was sitting *almost outside* the door.

He arrived *long before* the time.

He wept *partly through* sorrow and *partly through* anger.

(b) **Conjunctions:**—

A man is truly happy *only when* he is in sound health.

I dislike this place *simply because* the air is too hot.

I wish to know *precisely how* it happened.

They locked the door *shortly before* the thieves came.

The watch was found *long after* the thieves had been caught.

He has been ill *ever since* he left us.

It is immaterial whether we say that the adverb qualifies the *Preposition only* or the *entire phrase* introduced by the preposition. Similarly, we could say with equal truth that the adverb qualifies the *Conjunction only* or the *entire clause* that follows it.

Note.—If for an adverb proper we substitute an adverbial phrase, we find that such a phrase can qualify a preposition or a conjunction in the same way as an adverb proper does:—

Preposition.—He arrived *a few hours after* midnight.

Conjunction.—He recovered *ten days after* he had been taken ill.

223. An Adverb can qualify not merely individual words, but an entire Assertive sentence (§ 2, 1). *In this case it must stand first in the sentence.*

¹ Angus and Bain both admit that the qualifying power of adverbs is not limited to adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs; but both have none the less adhered to the old definition. The same admission, but without any departure from the old definition, is made by Mason, who in a footnote to page 105 of *English Grammar*, ed. 1891, points out that “an adverb sometimes modifies a preposition.” Since the old definition is admittedly wrong, it is better to put a more accurate one in its place.

Unfortunately the thief was not caught.

Evidently you were much distressed at the news.

We could rewrite these sentences in the following form :—

It is unfortunate that the thief was not caught.

It was evident that you were much distressed.

224. Adverbs do not qualify Nouns or Pronouns. This is the work of adjectives.

The apparent exceptions to the above rule can all be explained :—

(a) *I am sincerely yours.* That book is *certainly mine*.

Here the words "yours" and "mine" are the Possessive forms of "you" and "I," and are, therefore, equivalent to *adjectives* (§ 116).

(b) *A by-path*; a fore-taste; an out-house.

Here the adverbs do not qualify the several nouns, but are *compounded* with them, so that each compound makes a *single word*.

(c) In the following examples the adverb that precedes the noun does not qualify the noun, but some participle or adjective understood :—

The then king = the king *then reigning*.

The late king = the king *lately reigning*.

The above account = the account *given above*.

A far country = a country *far distant*.

An up mail = an *up-going mail*.

(d) In the following example the adverb "almost" does not qualify the noun "drunkard," but the verb "is" :—

He is *almost* a drunkard.

To say, "He is an *almost* drunkard," would be incorrect.

225. Adverbs are subdivided into three distinct classes :

I. Simple. II. Interrogative. III. Relative.

226. Simple Adverbs. — These can be distinguished from one another according to their meaning :—

(a) **Time** :—

He did this *before*, and you have done it *since*. He will *soon* arrive. He was taken ill *yesterday*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Now, then, before, since, ago, already, soon, presently, immediately, instantly, early, late, afterwards, yesterday, to-day, to-morrow*.

(b) **Place** :—

We must rest *here*, and not *there*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Here, there; hence, thence; hither, thither; in, out; within, without; above, below; inside, outside; far, near, etc.*

(c) Number :—

He did this *once*, but he will not do it *again*.

The chief adverbs of this class are :—*Once, twice, thrice, again, seldom, never, sometimes, always, often, firstly, secondly, thirdly*, etc.

(d) Manner, Quality, or State :—

He did his work *slowly*, but *surely*.

To this class of adverb belong :—*Thus, so, well, ill, amiss, badly, probably, certainly, conveniently*, etc.

(e) Quantity, Extent, or Degree :—

He is *almost*, but not *quite*, the cleverest boy in the class.

To this class of adverb belong :—*Very, much, too, quite, almost, little, a little, rather, somewhat, half, partly, wholly, so*, etc.

Note 1.—*Thus, so, the*.—These have been distinctively called Demonstrative adverbs, because they are akin to Demonstrative adjectives,—"thus" and "the" being akin to "this" or "that," and "so" to "such." They all denote either *manner* or *extent*.

Thus.—He did it *thus* (in this or that manner).

So.—He loved her *so* (in such a manner or to such an extent).

The.—He worked *the* (to that extent) harder, because he had been encouraged.

Note 2.—The adverb "the" is quite distinct from the Definite Article. It represents an old inflection of the Demonstrative, and is never used except before an adjective or adverb in the Comparative degree. Adverbial "the" is the old Instrumental case "thi."

(f) Affirming or Denying :—

He did not come after all.

Examples :—*Yes, no, not, yea, nay, not at all, by all means, etc.*

227. Interrogative Adverbs.—This is the name given to those adverbs that are used for asking questions :—

(a) Time :—

When did he come? *How long* will he remain here?

(b) Place :—

Where did he stop? *Whence* has he come? *Whither* is he going?

(c) Number :—

How often did the dog bark?

(d) Manner, Quality, or State :—

How did he do this? *How* (in what state of health) is he to-day?

(e) Quantity or Degree :—

How far (to what extent) was that report true?

(f) Cause or Reason :—

Why (for what reason) did he do this? *Wherefore* did she weep?

228. The adverb "*how*" is sometimes used in an exclamatory sense:—

How kind of you to do that!

How often have you been cautioned!

"*What*" in the sense of quantity or degree is similarly used in an exclamatory sense:—

What a foolish fellow you are!

What clever sons you have!

229. **Relative Adverbs.**—These are the same in *form* as Interrogative adverbs; but instead of asking questions, they join two sentences together. Hence a Relative adverb is a double part of speech,—an adverb and conjunction combined, as was pointed out in § 18 (3).

These adverbs are called *Relative* for two reasons—(1) Because they relate to some antecedent, expressed or understood, as Relative pronouns do; (2) because they are formed from Relative pronouns:—

(a) *The antecedent understood.*

This is *where* (= the place in which) we dwell.

Let me know *when* (= the time by which) you will come.

(b) *The antecedent expressed.*

This is the place *where* we dwell.

Let me know the time *when* you will come.

230. "*The*" as a Relative Adverb.—The word "*the*" is a Relative adverb of Quantity, and is always followed by its antecedent "*the*," which is a *Demonstrative* adverb of Quantity.

The more (wealth) men have, *the* more they desire.

The sooner he comes, *the* better for him.

Note 1.—The *first* "*the*" is the Relative adverb, and the *second* one is the Demonstrative adverb:— "*To what extent* men have more wealth, *to that extent* they desire more."

Note 2.—This pair of adverbs is never used except in combination with some adjective or other adverb in the *Comparative* degree.

Note 3.—The Relative "*the*" is never used unless it is followed by its antecedent, the Demonstrative "*the*." But the Demonstrative "*the*" can be used alone:—

He worked *the* (to that extent) harder, because he had been encouraged by his teacher.

§ 2.—DEGREES OF COMPARISON IN ADVERBS.

231. Some Adverbs have degrees of comparison like adjectives; and these are formed in the same kind of way:—

(a) If the Adverb is a word of *one* syllable, the Com-

parative is formed by adding *er* and the Superlative by adding *est* :—

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Soon	sooner	soonest
Long	longer	longest
Loud	louder	loudest
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest

(b) Some Adverbs form the degrees of comparison in an irregular way :—

Well	better	best
Ill or badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Little	less	least
Forth	further	furthest
Far	farther	farthest

(c) Adverbs ending in *ly* form the Comparative by adding *more* and the Superlative by adding *most* :—

Wisely	more wisely	most wisely
Beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

Note.—The adverb “*early*,” however, has “*earlier*” for its Comparative.

§ 3.—THE FORMS OF ADVERBS.

232. Some Adverbs have the same form as the corresponding Adjectives ; as—

<i>Adverb.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>
He was <i>much</i> pleased.	There is <i>much</i> sickness here.
He stayed <i>long</i> .	He went on a <i>long</i> journey.
He spoke <i>loud</i> .	There is a sound of <i>loud</i> voices.
He came <i>early</i> .	He woke up at an <i>early</i> hour.
Stand <i>near</i> while I speak.	He is my <i>near</i> relation.
He was a <i>little</i> tired.	There is a <i>little</i> hope now.
He came <i>only</i> once.	This is my <i>only</i> son.
He has slept <i>enough</i> .	He has eaten <i>enough</i> bread.

233. Adverbs in “*ly*.”—Most Adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding *ly* (a short form of *like*) ; and there is generally an Abstract noun which can be placed between the adjective and the adverb :—

<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Abstract Noun.</i>	<i>Adverb.</i>
Wise	wisdom	wisely
Poor	poverty	poorly
High	height	highly
Short	shortness	shortly

Note.—Adverbs can also be formed from Participles ; as, *devotedly*, *knowingly*, *surprisingly*, etc.

234. Adverbs formed from "the," "he," "who." These are sometimes called Pronominal adverbs:—

ADVERBS.					
	Rest.	Motion to.	Motion from.	Time.	Manner.
Dem.	The there	thither	thence	then	thus
	He here	hither	hence
Rel.	Who where	whither	whence	when	how
Inter.	Who? where?	whither?	whence?	when?	how?

Many of the above adverbs can be compounded with prepositions or other adverbs:—

From "there" we get *therein*, *thereto*, *thereat*, *therefore*, *therefrom*, *therewith*, *thereout*, *thereon* or *thereupon*, *thereof*, *thereby*.

From "here" we get *herein*, *hereto*, *heretofore*, *hereat*, *herewith*, *hereon* or *hereupon*, *hereof*, *hereby*, *hereafter*.

From "where" we get *wherein*, *whereto*, *wherefore*, *whereon*.

From "hither" we get *hitherto* (=up to this place or time).

From "thence" we get *thenceforth*, *thenceforward*.

From "hence" we get *henceforth*, *henceforward*.

235. Adverbs formed from Possessive nouns.—These are sometimes called Genitival adverbs:—

Needs (=of need, necessarily). *Once* (=of one, or of one time). *Twice* (=of two times). *Sometimes* (=of some time). *Always* (=of all way). *Sideways* (=of a side-way). *Length-ways* (=of a length-way). *Else* (=of other, from an old form, "elles," of another).

236. Adverbial Phrases.—There is a large number of phrases in English, which do the work of Adverbs and are therefore called Adverbial phrases (see § 30, a).

- (1) A preposition followed by a noun:—*At random* (aimlessly); *of course* (necessarily); *at length* (finally); *in fact* (actually); *to boot* (moreover); *of a truth* (truly).
- (2) A preposition amalgamated with a noun:—*Indeed* (actually); *besides* (punctually); *besides* (in addition); *between* (in the middle of two or twain); *to-day* (on this day); *to-morrow*; *asleep* (in a state of sleep); *abed* (in bed); *away* (on the way).

Note.—The "be" is an old form of the preposition "by." The "a" is a contracted form of the preposition "on."

- (3) A preposition followed by an adjective. Some noun is understood after the adjective:—*In general, in particular, in short, at large, in vain, on high, of old, after all, at first, at last, at least, at all, at most, at best, in future, at present.*
- (4) A preposition amalgamated with an adjective. Here, as before, some noun is understood after the adjective:—*Below, beyond, behind, abroad, anew, awry, across, along, aloud, etc.*
- (5) A noun qualified by an adjective:—*Meantime, meanwhile, midway, yesterday, etc.* (On the Adverbial objective, see § 287, 5.)
- (6) An Adverb compounded with a preposition:—*Forthwith, within, without, forever, at once, before, beneath.*
- (7) Miscellaneous phrases:—*By all means, by no means, by the by* (something said in passing), *by the way* (the same meaning as *by the by*), *once on a time, inside out, upside down, to be sure* (certainly), *head foremost* (with the head in front), *head downwards, topsy-turvy, head over heels* (the head being thrown over the heels).

237. Adverbs sometimes go together in pairs, the one being connected with the other by the conjunction "and":—

He is walking up and down, to and fro.
 He is walking here and there, hither and thither.
 The mice run in and out, backwards and forwards.
 He comes here now and then (occasionally).
 He works off and on (irregularly).
 You will see him by and by (in a short time).

§ 4.—VERBS COMPOUNDED WITH ADVERBS.

238. A Verb is said to be compounded with an Adverb, when the two words are so habitually used together, that one is considered to be a part of the other.

Such Adverbs are almost always (except in poetry) placed after the verb; as "speak out," "rise up." Here the *out* should be parsed as part of the verb "speak"; and *up* as part of the verb "rise."

But in forming the corresponding noun, the adverb is put first:—

Verb.	Noun.
The crops will come out well.	The outcome was a good crop.
No profits will come in.	His income is small.
Cholera did not break out.	There was no outbreak of cholera.
He set out on his journey.	He had no trouble at the outset.

Similar instances are:—*Set off* (verb), *offset* (noun); *put out* (verb), *output* (noun); *fit out* (verb), *outfit* (noun); *shoot off* (verb), *offshoot* (noun); *spring off* (verb), *offspring* (noun); *shoot up* (verb), *upshot* (noun); *turn out* (verb), *outturn* (noun); *cast out* (verb), *outcast* (noun); *set on* (verb), *onset* (noun); *lay out* (verb), *outlay* (noun); *look out* (verb), *outlook* (noun); *draw in* (verb), *indraught* (noun); *let out* (verb), *outlet* (noun); *let in* (verb), *inlet* (noun).

Note.—"Set-off," "turn-out," and a few more are also used as nouns.

§ 5.—THE TWO USES OF ADVERBS.

239. As in the case of Adjectives (see § 102), there are two different ways in which Adverbs can be used, viz. (a) the Attributive, (b) the Predicative.

(a) *Attributive use*.—An Adverb is used attributively, when it qualifies its word in the ordinary way,—that is, when it is placed as close as possible before it or after it:—

He is *entirely wrong*. He *shouted loudly*. He *did his work very badly*. *Half through* the door. I dislike him *only because he is lazy*.

(b) *Predicative use*.—An Adverb is used predicatively, when it is made part of the Predicate of a sentence, or in other words, when it is used as the Complement of the verb going before it:—

Subject.	Verb.	Complement, etc.
My son	is	<i>well</i> (in good health) <i>to-day</i> .
He	will be	<i>better</i> (in better health) <i>soon</i> .
He	was turned	<i>adrift</i> (to go where he could).
The two boys	are	<i>much alike</i> (like to each other).
The bear	was caught	<i>alive</i> (in a living state).
Those men	are	<i>aware</i> (conscious) of their faults.
The game	is	<i>over</i> (finished).
Some money	was	<i>still over</i> (remaining).
The results	are	<i>out</i> (published).
The stars	are	<i>out</i> (visible).
He	was heard	<i>out</i> (to the very end).
The bargain	is	<i>off</i> (cancelled).
The train	is	<i>off</i> (started).
He	is	<i>well off</i> (in good circumstances).
Our side	is	<i>in</i> (having their innings).
The late minister	is	<i>in</i> (holding office) again.

CHAPTER VII.—PREPOSITIONS.

240. *Preposition defined*.—A Preposition is a word placed before a noun or noun-equivalent to show in what relation the person or thing denoted thereby stands to something else (§ 14). The noun or noun-equivalent is called the Object.

I place my hand *on* the table.

Here if the word “*on*” is omitted, there is no sense. The hand might be placed *on* the table, or *under* the table, or *above* the table. Until some preposition has been inserted, the relation between the hand and the table is not ~~known~~.

241. (a) *Adverbs as Objects*.—Some adverbs of Time

or Place can be used as objects to prepositions denoting relations of Time or Place :—

We must be ready by *then* (=that time). By far the best.
 He has worked hard from *then* to *now*.
 He walks about from *here* to *there*.
 I have heard of worse things being done before *now*.
 Until *now* it has not ceased raining.
 Many strange things may happen between *now* and *then*.
 You must go at *once*. This will last for *ever*.

(b) **Phrases as Objects.**—Certain adverbial phrases (that is, phrases which do not end in a preposition or a conjunction, see § 30 and § 236) can, like Simple Adverbs, be used as objects to a preposition :—

The day-spring from *on-high* hath visited us.
 He has come from *beyond-the-seas*.
 He did not return till *about-ten-days-afterwards*.
 He did not see her till *within-a-few-weeks-of-his-death*.
 These books are sold at *over-one-rupee* each.
 I bought this for *under-half-its-value*.

(c) **Noun-clause as Object.**—A noun-clause (see § 47, f) can be the object to a preposition in the same way as a noun or pronoun can be.

This depends upon | whether-he-will-consent-or-not.
 He told every one of | what-he-had-heard.
 Go whenever you like except | that-you-must-not-go-in-the-rain.

242. Omission of Object.—There are two cases of this :—

Relative Pronoun.—The man (*whom* or *that*) we were looking for.
Demons. Pronoun.—A chair to sit on (*it*). (See § 196, b.)

243. Forms of Prepositions.—Prepositions have six different forms :—(1) Simple, (2) Double, (3) Compound, (4) Participial, (5) Phrase prepositions, (6) Disguised prepositions.

(1) **The Simple prepositions** are :—*At, by, with, on, in, to, for, of or off, from, through, up, till, over, under, after.*

Note.—The prepositions “*at-ter*,” “*ov-er*,” and “*un-der*” are Comparative forms of “*of*,” “*up*,” and the Old English “*un*” respectively.

(2) **Double prepositions.**—These are used when a single preposition is not sufficient to express the sense :—

The dog ran *into* the house. The lamp fell *onto* the table. One man was chosen *from among* the rest. The seed had sprouted *from under* the ground. The cart stands *over against* the bank. A live coal was taken *from off* the fireplace. He came *from within* the house.

(3) **Compound prepositions.**—These are formed from some noun, adjective, or adverb compounded with the preposition “*be*” (= by) or “*a*” (= on) :—

Across (=on cross), *along*, *amidst* (=on middle), *behind* (=by + hind), *about* (=on + by + out), *above* (=on + by + up), *before* (=by + fore), *within*, *without*, *below*, *beneath* (=by + neat), *beside*, *between* (=by + twain), *beyond* (=by + yonder), *amongst* (=on + gemang, in a multitude), *but* (=by + out, except).

(4) **Participial prepositions.**—These were originally Present or Past Participles used absolutely, sometimes (a) with the noun expressed, and sometimes (b) with some noun understood :—

(a) **The noun expressed** (see § 285, 5).

Pending fresh orders = fresh orders *pending* or not yet being given.
During the summer = the summer *during* or enduring or still lasting.
Notwithstanding his anger = his anger *not-withstanding* or not preventing it.

All *except* one = all, one *being* *excepted*.

All *save* one = all, one *being* *saved* or reserved.

The hour *past* sunset = the hour, sunset *having* *passed*.

(b) **Some noun understood** : Impersonal absolute (see § 300, Note 2).

Considering your age you have done very well.

Owing to the long drought the crops have failed.

Inform me *concerning*, *touching*, or *regarding* this matter.

(5) **Phrase prepositions.**—Two or more words habitually thrown together and ending with a Simple preposition may be called *Phrase prepositions* or *Prepositional phrases* (see § 30, b) :—

By means of; *because of*; *in front of*; *in opposition to*; *in spite of*; *on account of*; *with reference to*; *with regard to*; *for the sake of*; *on behalf of*; *instead of*; *in lieu of*; *in the place of*; *in prospect of*; *with a view to*; *in the event of*; etc.

Note.—The phrases “*on this side*” and “*on board*” do not take a Simple preposition after them; as—

On this side the river. *On board* the ship.

Similarly the noun “*despite*” can be used as a preposition for the prepositional phrase “*in spite of*” :—

Despite his riches, power, and pelf.—*Scott*.

(6) **Disguised prepositions.**—It has been shown already how “*by*” can be changed into “*be*” and “*on*” into “*a*,” as a prefix to certain nouns or adjectives.

Similarly “*of*” can be changed into “*o*,” as in “*four o'clock*,” “*Jack o' lantern*,” etc.

To the same class belong such phrases as the following:—

Wheat sells at sixteen seers *a rupee*.

He called to see me once *a week*.

He gave the coolies four annas *a piece*.

The “*a*” looks so much like the Indefinite Article, that by a false analogy “*the*” is sometimes used in its place; as—

Wheat sells at sixteen seers *the rupee*.

244. **Than.**—This word has been used as a Preposition by the best English writers.

No mightier than thyself or *me* : *Shakspeare*.

A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty; but a fool's wrath is heavier than *them* both : *Old Testament*.

She suffers hourly more than *me* : *Swift*.

Lined with giants deadlier than *them* all : *Pope*.

For thou art a girl as much brighter than *her* : *Prior*.

As he was a poet sublimer than *me* : *Prior*.

These are not schoolboy errors; and “than” is still used as a Preposition in conversation. But in recent books on Grammar its prepositional character has been either overlooked or denied. The right course to take is to parse it as a Conjunction, whenever it is possible to do so by adding a clause after it:—

No animal is larger than a whale.

No animal is larger than a whale (is large).

But in such examples as the following “than” must still be parsed as a Preposition, because there is no omitted clause which could make it a Conjunction:—

	<i>Kind of Object.</i>
I will not take less than <i>ten rupees</i>	}
No one other than a graduate need apply	Noun.
Here is my son, than <i>whom</i> a better does not exist	Rel. Pron.
He did nothing else than <i>laugh</i>	Noun Infin.
I will suffer myself rather than (that) he should suffer	}
He got more than (what) he asked for	Noun-clause.

245. **But.**—In such examples as the following “but” must be parsed as a Preposition. Otherwise it is a Conjunction. (On its uses as a Conjunction see p. 249.)

All *but* (except) one fulfilled their promises.

He was all *but* (=everything except) ruined. (Here “ruined” is an elliptical form of the Gerund “being ruined”; and this Gerund is the object of the preposition “but.”)

But for your help (=except on account of your help, =if you had not helped me) I should have been ruined. (Here the phrase “for your help” is object to the preposition.)

I cannot *but* fear (=I cannot do anything except fear) that you are ill. (Here the Noun-Infinitive “fear” is the object.)

CHAPTER VIII.—CONJUNCTIONS.

246. A **Conjunction** is a word for *joining*, and for no other purpose.

A Conjunction is never connected with an *object*, as a preposition is.

A Conjunction never *qualifies* a word, as an adverb does. It simply *joins* words or sentences.

Hence the same word can be an adverb in one place, a preposition in another, or a conjunction in another :—

I have seen this man *before*. (*Adverb*.)

He stood *before* the door. (*Preposition*.)

The rain fell *before* we reached home. (*Conjunction*.)

247. Conjunctions are sub-divided into two main classes :—

I. **Co-ordinative**, so called because they join sentences of co-ordinate (that is, of *equal*) rank.

II. **Subordinative**, so called because they join a *sub-ordinate* or dependent sentence to a *principal* sentence (that is, to a sentence of *higher rank*).

§ 1.—CO-ORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

248. *Sentences are Co-ordinate, when one is not dependent on the other, nor enters at all into its construction.*

249. Sentences of equal rank can be combined together in four different ways, and this gives rise to four different kinds of Co-ordinative Conjunctions :—

(a) **Cumulative**.—By these one statement or fact is simply *added* to another.

(b) **Alternative**.—By these an alternative or *choice* is offered between one statement and another.

(c) **Adversative**.—By these conjunctions one statement or fact is *contrasted* with or set against another.

(d) **Illative**.—By these conjunctions one statement or fact is *inferred* or proved from another.

(a) Cumulative (addition).

And.—The one received a prize, *and* the other was promoted.

Both . . . **and**.—He was *both* degraded *and* expelled.

Also.—He is guilty, *and* you *also*.

Too.—He is an idler, *and* a gambler *too*.

As well as.—He *as well as* you is guilty.

No less than.—He *no less than* you is guilty.

Not only . . . but also.—He was *not only* accused, *but also* convicted.

Now.—They preferred Barabbas *to* Jesus; *now*, Barabbas was a robber.

Well.—You have done the work very skilfully; *well*, I did not expect it of you.

(b) Alternative (choice).

Either . . . or.—*Either* this man sinned *or* his parents.

Neither . . . nor.—He was *neither* an idler *nor* a gambler.

Otherwise, else, or.—Leave the room, *or* you will be caught.

(c) Adversative (contrast).

But.—He is sad, *but* hopeful.

Still, yet.—He is very rich, *still* or *yet* he is not contented.

Nevertheless.—All men were against him; *nevertheless* he persevered.

However.—All men were against him; he stuck, *however*, to his point.

Whereas, while.—Wise men love truth; *whereas* or *while* fools shun it.

Only.—Go where you like; *only* do not stay here.

(d) Illative (inference).

Therefore.—He was found guilty, and *therefore* he was hanged.

Then, so, so then.—It is time to go: *so* or *so then* let us start, or let us start *then*.

For.—He will die some day; *for* all men are mortal.

§ 2.—SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS.

250. One sentence is said to be *subordinate* to another, when it depends upon the other, *i.e.* enters into its construction with the force of a noun, adjective, or adverb.

The Dependent sentence is that to which some Subordinative Conjunction is prefixed.

The Principal sentence is that on which the subordinate or inferior sentence depends.

<i>Principal.</i>	<i>Conjunction.</i>	<i>Dependent.</i>
I will read that book,	if	you advise me.

251. What are the different modes in which one sentence can be made to depend on another?

The chief modes of dependence are nine in number:—

- (a) Apposition, (b) Causation, (c) Effect, (d) Purpose,
- (e) Condition, (f) Concession or Contrast, (g) Comparison,
- (h) Extent or manner, (i) Time.

(a) Apposition, or in a merely Introductory sense¹ :—

Principal.	Dependent.
He told us (the fact),	that rain had fallen.
He wrote to us (to the effect),	that he had arrived safely.
He made a promise,	that he would return soon.

The Dependent sentence in the above examples is in apposition with the noun in brackets, which may be either omitted or expressed.

(b) Cause or Reason :—

Principal.	Dependent.
He will succeed,	because he has worked hard.
I will do this,	since you desire it.
Let us go to bed,	as it is now late.

(c) Effect :—

Principal.	Dependent.
He talked so much,	that he made himself hoarse.

(d) Purpose :—

Principal.	Dependent.
Men work,	that they may earn a living.
He took medicine,	in order that he might recover.
He took medicine,	so that he might recover.
He walked with a cane,	lest he should stumble.

(e) Condition :—

Principal.	Dependent.
I will do this,	if I am allowed.
They threatened to beat him,	unless he confessed (=if he did not confess).
I agree to these terms,	provided or provided that you will sign your name.
He gave a sudden start,	as if he had been shot (=as he would have done, if he had been shot).
You must leave the room,	whether you wish it or no (=you must leave the room under any condition whatever).

¹ The word "that," if we look to its origin, is simply the neuter Demonstrative pronoun. How it became a Conjunction is thus explained by Mr. Mason in *English Grammar*, p. 122.

"That" was originally the neuter pronoun used to point to the fact stated in some previous clause or sentence. "It was good; he saw that." By inverting the order of the clauses, we get: "He saw that (namely) it was good." The primary clause has thus become a secondary or subordinate one; and "that" has become a subordinative conjunction.

Mr. Mason calls it "the Simple Conjunction of Subordination,"—a long and awkward name, less convenient than "Apposition."

Dr. Abbott, in p. 257 of *How to Parse*, calls it the conjunction of "Apposition."

When no noun stands before it for the purpose of apposition, it might be called the Introductory conjunction.

(f) Concession or Contrast:—

Principal.

He is an honest man,
He will never succeed,
He was not contented,
He was not refreshed,

Dependent.
though or although he is poor.
however much he may try.
however rich he became.
notwithstanding that he slept long.

Note.—The conjunction “however,” when it is *co-ordinative*, stands alone, and is generally placed somewhere in the middle of its sentence. But when it is *subordinative*, it must be attached to some adverb as “much,” or to some adjective as “rich,” and is always placed at the beginning of its sentence:—

Dependent.

1. *Though* he punish me, *yet* will I trust in him.
2. Hot *as* the sun is, *we* must go out.

Observe that whenever “*as*” is used in a Concessive or Contrasting sense, it is invariably *preceded* by some adjective, adverb, or participle, which stands as Complement to the verb following:—

Hot *as* the sun is = however hot the sun is.

(g) Comparison—(i.) of equal degrees:—

The same Quality Compared.

He is *as* clever *as* I (am).
He likes you *as much as* I (like you).
He likes you *no less than* me (he likes me).

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is *as* deep *as* the mountains are high.
He is *as* good *as* he is wise (=He is no less good than he is wise).

(ii.) Of unequal degrees.

The same Quality Compared.

He is more (or less) clever *than* I (am).
He likes you more (or less) *than* I (like you).
He likes you more (or less) *than* me (he likes me).

Different Qualities Compared.

The sea is deeper *than* the mountains are high.
He is more wise *than* (he is) good.
He is less good *than* (he is) wise.

(h) Extent or Manner:—

Principal.

Men will reap

Dependent.
as (=to what extent or in what manner) they sow.

This is not true,
He chose the men,

so far as I can find out.
according as they were fit.

Dependent.

As men sow,

Principal.
so will they also reap.

(i) Time :—

Time simultaneous.

Principal.

He called at the house,
I will leave the room,
You can hold the horse,

Dependent.

as the clock struck four.
as soon as you open the door.
while I bring the saddle.

Time before.

Principal.

He worked very hard,
You have much to do,
He remained a minor,

Dependent.

before he succeeded.
ere you can gain your end.
until he was seventeen years old.

Time after.

Principal.

He returned home,
He has been very weak,

Dependent.

after he had done the work.
since he was taken sick.

Time how long.

Principal.

The sun will rise,
No one can harm us,

Dependent.

while the world lasts.
so long as we remain friends.

Relative and Interrogative Adverbs.

252. It was explained in § 18 that a Relative adverb is a *double* part of speech,—a conjunction and adverb combined in one.

The same is true of Interrogative adverbs, when they are used as conjunctions :—

Let me ask you *how* you did this.

There is no difference in *form* between a Relative and an Interrogative adverb. The former qualifies some noun expressed or understood in the Principal sentence. The latter is preceded by some verb that signifies *asking* or *inquiring*.

Relative and Interrogative adverbs, so far as they join sentences, constitute a special class of Subordinative conjunctions.

Time.

Principal.

He remained silent,
He feels sad,

when

whenever

Dependent.

(=as soon as) he heard that.

(=at any time in which) he
thinks of his lost friend.

My friends inquired

when

I should return.

Concession or Contrast.

Principal.

He sold that house,

when

Dependent.

(=although) it was the best
he had.

Purpose, Cause, or Reason.

Place.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
We find flowers,	where	(=in a place in which) we expected only weeds.
We find flowers,	wherever	(=in any places in which) we wander.
He did not tell us	whence	(=the place from which) he had come.

Respect.

<i>Principal.</i>		<i>Dependent.</i>
He did not tell us	where	(=in what point) we were wrong.
We cannot perceive	where	(=in what respect) the difference lies.

Manner or Means

Principal. Let me ask you, *how* (=by what means or in what manner) you did this.

State or Condition

Doubt.

- { Ten o'clock is the hour *when* we must start.
- { Ten o'clock is the hour *at which* we must start.
- { Tell me the reason *why* you left us.
- { Tell me the reason *for which* you left us.
- { This is the house *where* we once lived.
- { This is the house *in which* we once lived.

CHAPTER IX.—INTERJECTIONS.

253. AN Interjection, properly speaking, is not a Part of Speech, since it has no grammatical connection with any other word or words in the sentence.

It is merely an *exclamatory sound*, thrown into a sentence to denote some strong feeling or emotion (see §§ 13 and 14):—

<i>Joy</i> .—Hurrrah ! huzza !	<i>Reproach</i> .—Fie ! fie !
<i>Grief</i> .—Oh ! ah ! alas ! alack !	<i>Contempt</i> or <i>ridicule</i> .—Stuff ! bosh ! tut-tut ! pooh ! pish ! pshaw ! tush !
<i>Amusement</i> .—Ha ! ha !	
<i>Approval</i> .—Bravo !	
<i>Weariness</i> .—Heigh-ho !	<i>To call some one</i> .—Ho ! holloa !
<i>Attention</i> .—Lo ! hark ! hush ! hist !	<i>Doubt</i> .—Hum ! hem ! humph !

254. There are certain phrases which are used like Interjections to express some strong feeling or emotion :—

Ah me, or ay me ! Woe is me !
For shame (=alas, on account of shame !)
Alack a day (=ah, lack or loss on the day !)
Hail, all hail (=be hale or healthy !) Welcome ! Well done !
Good-bye (=God be with ye !). Adieu ! Farewell !
Bad luck to it ! O dear me (=O dear or costly for me !)
Good gracious ! Good heavens ! Well to be sure ! (Surprise.)

255. There are certain moods of verbs and parts of speech which can be used in an exclamatory or Interjectional sense :—

- (a) *Noun-Infinitive*.—*To think* that he should have died ! (§ 195, e.)
- (b) *Subjunctive*.—*Would* that I had gained that prize ! (Wish.)
- (c) *Imperative*.—*Hear ! hear !* (Applause.)
- (d) *Noun*.—*Dreadful sight ! Foolish fellow ! Fool ! Duncie !*
- (e) *Adjective* (with some noun understood).—*Strange ! Shocking !*
- (f) *Adverb*.—*How* very kind of you ! *How* wonderful !
- (g) *Pronoun*.—*What* a sad thing it is !
- (h) *Conjunction*.—*If* I could only see him once more !

256. Sometimes in a rapid or exclamatory sentence an Auxiliary verb with its subject is left out, and only the main verb is expressed :—

Why dream and wait for him longer ?—*Longfellow*.
 (= Why dost thou or why do we wait for him longer ?)

CHAPTER X.—ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

§ I.—ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

257. A SENTENCE which has only *one* Finite verb (expressed or understood) is called a Simple sentence ; as—

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Finite Verb.</i>
Rain	falls.

The word "Simple" means *single*. The sentence is called *single* (or simple), because it has only *one* Finite verb in it.

258. A sentence that has *more than one* Finite verb expressed or understood is either Compound or Complex.

Thus:—"If I see him to-day, I will invite him to my house." This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *two* Finite verbs, viz. "see" and "will invite."

Again:—"He was well received and (was) listened to with respect, whenever he spoke." This is not a Simple sentence, because it has *three* Finite verbs, viz. "was" expressed, "was" understood, and "spoke."

259. There are four distinct parts or elements of which a Simple sentence can be composed; and the analysis of a sentence consists in *decomposing* it (that is, in analysing or breaking it up) into these several parts:—

§ 1.—The Subject.

§ 2.—Adjuncts to the Subject, *if any*.

§ 3.—The Predicate.

§ 4.—Adjuncts to the Predicate-verb, *if any*.

Of these four elements the first and third (viz. the Subject and the Predicate) are essential to the sentence,—that is, the sentence could not exist without them (see § 3). But the second and fourth (viz. the Adjuncts to the Subject or to the Predicate-verb) are not essential. They are mere additions, which may or may not be present, and could be removed without destroying the sentence.

260. I. The Subject must be either a *Noun* or something that has the force of a Noun.

II. The additions or Adjuncts to the Subject (if there are any) must be either *Adjectives* or words that have the force of an Adjective. They have hence been called *Attributive Adjuncts*. (They are sometimes also called the *Enlargement of the Subject*.)

III. The Predicate must either be a *Finite verb* or it must contain one.

IV. The additions or Adjuncts to the Predicate-verb (if there are any) must be either *Adverbs* or words that have the force of an Adverb. They have hence been called *Adverbial Adjuncts*. (Sometimes also they have been called the *Extension of the Predicate*.)

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. Predicate- verb.	IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Predicate).
A tiger The horse	fierce tired	was shot will sleep	to-day. soundly.

The Subject.

261. The Subject can be expressed in several different forms, all of which (as you have already learnt) are either Nouns or words that have the force of a Noun:—

		Subject.	Predicate.
(a)	{ A Noun A Noun understood	Rain The virtuous (men)	is falling. will prosper.
(b)	A Pronoun	We	must go.
(c)	A Noun-Infinitive	To work	is healthy.
(d)	A Gerund	Working	is healthy.
(e)	A Phrase	How to do this	is doubtful.

Note 1.—The student should observe that the above list of forms in which the Subject can be expressed tallies with that given in § 22, except that (f) a Clause has been omitted. A clause, as will be afterwards shown, belongs to Complex and Compound sentences.

Note 2.—When a Noun-Infinitive is used as Subject, it is sometimes placed after the Predicate, and is in apposition to the pronoun "it."

It is sad to see this = It—viz. to see this—is sad.

Attributive Adjuncts (to the Subject).

262. It has been explained already that all such additions *qualify the Subject*, and hence they are either adjectives or words having the force of an adjective.

Note.—The Definite and Indefinite articles, although properly speaking they belong to the class of Demonstrative adjectives, are not counted by some writers as Adjuncts in the analysis of sentences.

263. The principal kinds of Attributive Adjuncts are:—

(a) An Adjective; as—

A *heavy* shower fell to-day.

Here *heavy* is something added to the meaning of the Subject "shower," because it shows what kind of shower is meant.

(b) A Participle or Verbal Adjective; see § 103 (1):—

A *fertilising* shower fell to-day.

Here *fertilising* is something added to the meaning of the Subject, because it shows what kind of work the shower is expected to do.

(c) A Gerundial Infinitive; see § 103 (5) and § 196 (b):—

Water *to drink* is scarce in this place.

Here *to drink* shows the purpose for which the water will be used, and like an adjective it qualifies the noun "water."

(d) A Noun or Pronoun in the Possessive case; § 103 (4):

My son's teacher called here to-day.

Here *my son's* is something added to the subject, and has the same force as an adjective would have in qualifying the noun "teacher."

(e) A Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective; § 103 (3):
 The *village* watchman fell asleep in the night.
Drinking water is scarce in this place.

(f) A Noun in Apposition; see § 19:—
 Alexander, *the King* of Macedon, conquered Persia.

(g) A Preposition with its Object; see § 103 (6):—
 A man *of virtue* (=a virtuous man) will not tell a lie.

(h) An Adverb with some Participle omitted; § 103 (2):
 The *then* king = the then (reigning) king.

The Predicate.

264. The Predicate must be either a Finite verb or it must contain one. If the verb is of such a nature, that it cannot by itself make a *complete* sense (as required by the definition given in § 1), but must have some word or words placed after it for this purpose, any such word or words must be considered parts of the predicate. All possible forms of a Predicate are shown in the following scheme:—

Subject.	PREDICATE.		
	Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	Complement with qualifying words.
1. { A hog The snake	grunts. was killed.
2. { My son The thief	became was ordered	...	a good scholar. to be severely punished.
3. { The gardener The teacher	killed will teach	that poisonous snake. (a) my sons (b) Euclid.	...
4. They	found	the weary man	sound asleep.

In (1) we have first an Intransitive verb of Complete Predication (see § 152), and then a Transitive verb in the Passive voice. Neither of these requires either an Object or a Complement. So the verb alone makes up the Predicate.

In (2) we have first an Intransitive verb of Incomplete Predication (see § 153), and then a Factitive verb in the Passive voice (see § 165). Each of these requires a Complement to make the predication complete.

In (3) we have first a Transitive verb with a single Object (see § 146), and then a Transitive verb with a double Object (see § 148).

Each of these requires the Object (single or double) to be expressed, before the predication can be complete.

In (4) we have a Factitive verb in the Active voice, which therefore requires both an Object and a Complement (see § 149).

Note 1.—If the Object or Complement has any qualifying words attached to it, these can be mentioned with it in the same column.

Thus in the complement "a good scholar," there is no need to make a separate column for the qualifying adjective "good."

Again, in the complement "to be severely punished," there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adverb "severely."

Again, in stating the object "that poisonous snake," there is no need of a separate column for the qualifying adjectives "that" and "poisonous."

Note 2.—An Auxiliary verb may be put in the same column with the Principal verb. Thus in stating "will teach," we need not give one column for "will" and another for "teach."

Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).

265. Anything which qualifies the action of the verb (by saying something about the time, manner, place, cause, means, instrument, purpose, or any other circumstance) is called an Adjunct or addition to the Predicate.

All such additions, since they qualify the verb, must be either adverbs or words having the force of an adverb.

266. The principal kinds of Adverbial adjuncts are:—

- (a) *Adverb.*—He sleeps soundly.
- (b) *Adverbial Phrase.*—They walked *side by side*.
- (c) *Adjective.*—He went away *sad*. He stood *alone*. } § 290.
- (d) *Participle.*—He went away *vexed* and *disappointed*. } § 290.
- (e) *Gerundial Infinitive.*—He came to *see* the horse.
- (f) *Adverbial Objective.*—He walked *all day*. He walked *ten miles*.
- (g) *Preposition with Object.*—He fell *into* a *deep well*.
- (h) *Absolute Phrase.*—We all started, *he remaining behind*.

Examples of Analysis.

1. A darwesh, travelling through Tartary, having arrived at the town of Balkh, entered the king's palace by mistake, thinking it to be a public inn or serai.

2. My father taught all his sons Euclid with much success.

3. Alexander, the King of Macedon, was surnamed the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire.

4. The man employed for this purpose caught the thief stealing a watch.

5. The merchant, having much property to sell, caused all his goods to be conveyed on camels, there being no railway in that particular part of the country.

6. A gentleman of wealth and position, living in London, some sixty years ago, had a country seat in Kent, some forty miles from the metropolis.

I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjuncts (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.	IV. Adverbial Adjuncts (to Verb of Predicate).
1. A Darwesh.	(a) travelling through Tartary (b) having arrived at the town of Balkh	entered the king's palace	(a) by mistake (b) thinking it to be a public inn or serai. with much success.
2. Father	my	tought (a) all his sons (b) Euclid	...
3. Alexander	the King of Macedon	was sur- named	the Great after his conquest of the Persian Empire. ...
4. The man	employed for the purpose	caught the thief	stealing a watch.
5. The merchant	having much property to sell	caused all his goods	to be conveyed on camels
6. A gentleman	(a) of wealth and position (b) living in London (c) some sixty years ago	had a country seat	there being no railway in that particular part of the country. (a) in Kent (b) some forty miles from the metro- polis.

Analyse the following Simple sentences according to the model:—

1. A certain fowler, having fixed his net, withdrew to a little distance for the sake of allowing the birds to come.
2. The king of the pigeons was by chance passing through the sky at this time with a troop of followers.
3. He and they caught sight of the rice-grains scattered by the fowler near the net.
4. The king of the pigeons then asked his rice-loving followers this question—

 5. Why are rice-grains lying here in this lonely place ?
 6. We will see into this thing.
 7. We must be cautious in our movements.
 8. One conceited pigeon among the rest gave them bad advice.
 9. He told them to fly down to the rice-grains for the sake of satisfying their hunger.
 10. Having flown down and listened to this bad advice, they began to peck up and swallow the grains against the advice of their king.
 11. On their beginning to peck they were all caught in the net.
 12. Then they blamed their rash and imprudent friend for having given them such bad advice.
 13. They ought rather to have blamed themselves for having listened to him.
 14. The king now told them what to do.
 15. At one moment and with one united movement springing suddenly up fly off with the net.
 16. Small things become strong by being united among themselves.
 17. Even mad elephants can be held fast by a rope made of thin blades of grass.
 18. The pigeons acted on this advice.
 19. Making a sudden spring together, they flew up into the air, carrying the net with them.
 20. At first the fowler hoped to see them come down again to the earth.
 21. But they passed out of sight with the net about them.
 22. In this way the fowler lost both his net and the pigeons.
 23. The pigeons then said to their king :—“O king, what is the next thing to be done ?”
 24. The king directed them to a certain place.
 25. There his friend, the king of the mice, received them kindly.
 26. The king of the mice set them all free by nibbling through the net.
 27. Thus the whole troop of pigeons escaped by means of union.
 28. All men should profit by this lesson.
 29. A chariot will not go on a single wheel.
 30. A creeper, having nothing to support it, must fall to the earth.

§ 2.—ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

267. A Compound sentence is one made up of two or more Co-ordinate (that is, equal or independent) clauses.

The clauses of which a Compound sentence is made up are joined together by any of the *Co-ordinative Conjunctions* described in § 249. (See "clause" defined in § 5.)

- (1) The sun rose with power, *and* the fog dispersed. (*Cumulative.*)
- (2) Either he must leave the house *or* I (must leave the house). (*Alternative.*)
- (3) He called at my house, *but* I did not see him. (*Adversative.*)
- (4) He came back tired; *for* he had walked all day. (*Illative.*)

268. Co-ordinate clauses can also be joined together by a Relative pronoun or adverb, provided it is used in a *Continuative*, and not in a *Restrictive* sense (see § 134).

He slew all the prisoners, *which* (=and this) was a very barbarous act.

He is clever at planting young trees; *for which* purpose (=and for this purpose) every one is glad to employ him.

He went to London, *where* (=and there) he stayed ten days.

Immense saw-mills have been erected near Rangoon and Moulmein, *which* (=and these towns) are situated at the mouths of the two great rivers of Burma.

269. Contracted Sentences.—Compound sentences often appear in a contracted or shortened form, so as to avoid the needless repetition of the same word:—

(a) When there are *two Predicates to the same Subject*, there is no need to mention the Subject more than once:—

- (1) The sun *rose* and (the sun) *filled* the sky with light.
- (2) He *called* at my house, but (he) *left* soon after.

(b) When there are *two Subjects to the same Predicate*, we need not mention the Predicate more than once:—

- (1) *He* as well as *you* is guilty (=He is guilty as well as you are guilty). (*Cumulative.*)
- (2) Either *this man* sinned or *his parents* (sinned). (*Alternative.*)
- (3) He is poor, but (he is) honest. (*Adversative.*)
- (4) He is diligent, and therefore (he is) prosperous. (*Illative.*)

Note 1.—When two nouns are joined by "and," they are not two separate subjects to the same verb, but *one* compound subject to the Plural verb following (see § 295):—

The dog-and-its-master ran out of the house.

In some instances, such as the following, the two Subjects united by "and" are inseparable :—

He and I are great friends.

Youth and experience seldom exist together.

Here we cannot split up either of the above sentences into two separate clauses. Thus we cannot say, "He is a great friend, and I am a great friend"; nor can we say, "Youth seldom exists together, and experience seldom exists together."

Note 2.—When two nouns are so united by the conjunction "and" as to denote a single fact, or what is considered to be a single fact, the nouns cannot be separated so as to become the Subjects of separate clauses. See § 395, (a), (b).

The great poet-and-scholar is dead.

Curry-and-rice was his favourite dish.

Note 3.—When two nouns or phrases are connected by the conjunction "or," and the "or" is not used in an alternative sense, they should be considered as constituting a single Subject :—

A tribe or caste is part of a nation.

Here *caste* is used merely as another name for *tribe*.

270. Omission of the Conjunction "and."—Alternative conjunctions, Adversative conjunctions, and Illative conjunctions are never omitted. But the Cumulative conjunction "and" can be left out, when the aim of the writer is to give a string of sentences, all bearing upon one central fact. Only the last sentence or the last verb should have "and" prefixed to it in such a case.

The uses and power of steam have been thus described, one single word standing as subject to no less than twenty-six Finite verbs or predicates :—

What will not the steam-engine do? It propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, blasts, digs, cuts, saws, planes, bores, blows, forges, hammers, files, polishes, rivets, cards, spins, winds, weaves, coins, prints, and does more things than I can think of or enumerate.

Rules and Model.

271. The process of analysing Compound sentences can be described under the following rules :—

- (a) Pick out the Finite verb of each clause.
- (b) If the Finite verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.
- (c) Pick out the Subject to each Finite verb in succession.

(d) If the Subject to any Finite verb is understood, but not expressed, supply it.

(e) Then write out each clause with its Subject, Predicate, and Adjuncts (if there are any Adjuncts) in full.

(f) Pick out the Connective word, by which any one clause is joined to any other clause.

(1) His greatest enemy, as well as his best friends, repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

A. His greatest enemy repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

B. His best friends repeatedly declared him to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge.

Connective :—As well as.

(2) Either you or your son must sign his name.

A. You must sign your name.

B. Your son must sign his name.

Connectives :—Either . . . or.

(3) He, not I, is certainly the author of that plan.

A. He is certainly the author of that plan.

B. I am certainly not the author of that plan.

Connective :—(*nil*). Here no connective is required.

Compound Sentences to be Analysed.

1. He as well as you is tired of all this work. (*Two clauses.*)

2. Either he or his friend must have opened the door; for no other person had the key. (*Three clauses.*)

3. The Lord knoweth the way of the righteous, but the way of the ungodly shall perish. (*Two clauses.*)

4. He either does not or will not understand the orders given to him. (*Two clauses.*)

5. How to do this or how to do that was never explained to us, and so we did neither. (*Two clauses.*)

6. He acts like a child; for now he laughs, and then he cries; he goes first here, and then there; and no one knows what to do with him. (*Six clauses.*)

7. They found the horse indeed; but it distressed them to see it; for it was lame. (*Three clauses.*)

8. The spaniel frisked and gambolled about the lion, barked at him, would now scrape and tear at his head with his claws, then seize him by the ear and bite and pull; but nothing could aggravate the noble beast. (*Nine clauses.*)

9. The life of a mosquito is brief, but very active; the female lives for two or three weeks, lays its eggs and dies. (*Five clauses.*)

The Clauses.	Connective.	I. Subject.	II. Attributive Adjectives (to Sub- ject).	III. PREDICATE.		IV. Adverbial Adjectives (to Verb of Predicate).
				Finite Verb.	Object with qualifying words.	
(A. His greatest enemy repeatedly de- clared him to be innocent of the faults, etc. B. His best friends de- clared him to be innocent of the faults, etc.	...	enemy	his greatest.	declared	him	to be innocent of the fault laid to his charge repeatedly.
(A. You must sign your name at once on that paper. B. Your son must sign his name at once on that paper.		either or	you son	must sign	your name his name	to be innocent of the fault, etc.
(A. He is certainly the author of that plan. B. I am not the author of that plan.	...	He I	...	is am not	nil	(a) at once (b) on that paper. (a) at once (b) on that paper.
					nil	certainly.

10. At length I to the boy called out ;
 He stopped his horses at the word ;
 But neither cry, nor voice, nor shout,
 Nor aught else like it could be heard. (*Six clauses.*)

11. Sir Ralph the Rover tore his hair,
 And beat his breast in his despair ;
 The waves rush in on every side,
 And the ship sinks down beneath the tide. (*Four clauses.*)

12. The Brahmans or astrologers promise success to the divers ;
 for they expect a liberal gift of pearls as a reward for the happy sense
 of confidence imparted by them to those men. (*Two clauses.*)

§ 3.—ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

272. A Complex sentence consists of a Principal clause with one or more Subordinate clauses.

The clause which contains the *main verb* of the entire complex sentence is called the **Principal clause**.

Note.—It has been said that the Principal clause is that which contains “the principal subject and predicate.” But this is not true ; for sometimes there is no principal subject, the subject itself being a Subordinate clause :—

<i>Subject (Subord. clause).</i>	<i>Predicate (Prin. clause).</i>
Who steals my purse	steals trash.

273. Subordinate and Co-ordinate Clauses.—A Subordinate clause is a *component part* of some other clause, in which it does the work (without possessing the form) of a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb.

A Co-ordinate clause is not a component part of any other clause, but forms a *complete grammatical whole* by itself.

274. There are three kinds of Subordinate clauses,—the **Noun-Clause**, the **Adjective-Clause**, and the **Adverb-Clause** : and these are defined as follows :—

I. *A Noun-Clause is one which does the work of a Noun in relation to some word in some other clause.*

II. *An Adjective-Clause is one which does the work of an Adjective in relation to some word in some other clause.*

III. *An Adverb-Clause is one which does the work of an Adverb in relation to some word in some other clause.*

I. The Noun-Clause.

275. There are three kinds of connectives, by which a Noun-Clause can be introduced :—

(1) The Conjunction "that" used in a merely Introductory sense (see § 251, a):—

We did not know *that* he would leave us so soon.

(2) A Relative or Interrogative adverb, provided that no Antecedent is expressed:—

Where he is going is not known to any one. (Relat.)

Let us inquire *whether* he will go to-day. (Interrog.)

Note.—The conjunction "if" can be used for "whether" as an Interrogative adverb—

Let us inquire *if* (= *whether*) he will go to-day.

(3) A Relative or Interrogative pronoun, provided that no Antecedent is expressed:—

Who steals my purse steals trash. (Relat.)

I beg to inquire *who* came here to-day. (Interrog.)

276. The Noun-Clause, since it does the work of a Noun, can be—

- (a) The Subject to a Verb.
- (b) The Object to a Verb.
- (c) The Object to a Preposition.
- (d) The Complement to a Verb.
- (e) In Apposition to a Noun.

(a) **Subject to a Verb**; see § 22 (f):—

Where he is going is not known to any one.

That he will come back soon is certain.

Whom the gods love die young.—Proverb.

(b) **Object to a Verb**; see § 24 (f):—

He promised *that* he would soon pay back the debt.

I shall be glad to know *when* he will pay it.

Perceiving *what* a mistake he had made, he yielded.

(c) **Object to a Preposition**; see § 241 (c):—

My success in future depends upon *who* is placed over me.

This book will sell for *what* it is worth.

Except *that* he speaks too fast he is an excellent teacher.

(d) **Complement to a Verb**; see § 149 and § 153:—

This is exactly *what* I expected.

My question was *whether* there was any hope of his recovery.

This is *what* no one can understand.

(e) In Apposition to a Noun; see § 20:—

The news *that he intended to come* gave us much pleasure.
 The report *that he had gone* is unknown to me.

Here the clause "that he intended to come" is in apposition to the noun "news." This is the reason why the conjunction "that" is said to signify apposition (§ 251, a).

277. The conjunction "that" (in the sense of apposition) is often left out after a *verb*, provided that the noun with which the clause is in apposition is not expressed:—

It seems (that) *he is not clever*.

N.B.—The conjunction "that" is never left out when the noun is expressed:—

The *fact he is not clever* gives us much pain.

This is quite inadmissible. Since the noun "fact" is expressed, the appositional clause "he is not clever" must be introduced by the conjunction "that."

278. A sentence consisting of the very words spoken by any one may be the Subject or Object to a verb, and must therefore be considered as an example of a Noun-Clause:—

"I have seen this man before," was the only thing that he said.

The sleeper started up from his bed, shouting, "I am bitten."

Examples of the Noun-Clause.

Pick out the Noun-Clause and say whether it is the Subject to some Verb, or the Object to some Verb, or the Object to some Preposition, or the Complement to some Verb, or in Apposition to some noun expressed. Supply the Conjunction "that" wherever it has been left out:—

1. No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all, or whether he is even alive.
2. How this came to pass is not known to any one.
3. What is sauce for the goose is sauce for the gander.
4. It is quite evident rain will fall to-day.
5. The Equator shows where days and nights are of equal length.
6. What is one man's meat is another man's poison.
7. You must know that the air is never quite at rest.
8. I think I shall never clearly understand this.
9. We heard the school would open in ten days' time.
10. The name "Volcano" indicates the belief of the Ancient Greeks, that the burning hills of the Mediterranean were the workshops of the divine blacksmith. Vulcan.

11. Even a feather shows which way the wind is blowing.
12. Whatever faculty man has is improved by use.
13. The fool hath said in his heart, "There is no God."
14. "Know thyself," was the advice given us by a Greek sage.
15. He did not know that his father had been shot.
16. The fact that you have not signed your name to a letter shows that you lack moral courage.
17. It will be easily understood how useful even the simplest weapons were to the first dwellers on the earth.
18. The question first occurring to the mind of a savage is how is fire to be made.
19. Common sense soon taught him that fire could be produced by rubbing two sticks together.
20. In chipping their flint weapons men must have seen that fire occasionally flashed out.
21. We learn from travellers that savages can produce fire in a few seconds.
22. He shouted out to the thief, "Leave this house."
23. We cannot rely on what he says.
24. It is quite evident you have made a mistake.
25. It was very unfortunate that you were taken ill.
26. He was a man of fine character except that he was rather timid.

II. *The Adjective-Clause.*

279. An Adjective-Clause does the work of an Adjective to some noun or pronoun in some other clause.

The only kind of connective word by which an Adjective-Clause can be introduced is a Relative pronoun or Relative adverb, and then only when the Relative is used in a Restrictive sense (see § 134).

If the Relative is used in a Continuative sense, the sentence is Compound, and not Complex (see § 268).

1. Among the men, *who came here to-day*, not one turned out to be honest.

Here the italicised clause qualifies or restricts "men."

2. We found the wolf lying dead in the very place *where (=in which) it was shot*.

Here the italicised clause qualifies or restricts "place."

280. The Relative pronoun, provided it would be in the Objective case, and provided its sense is Restrictive, and not Continuative (§ 134), is often left out (see § 150).

The food he needed (=which or that he needed) was not procured without a great deal of trouble.

Pick out the Adjective-Clause or Clauses in each of the following examples, and point out the noun or pronoun qualified by it in some other clause. If the Relative pronoun has been omitted anywhere, supply it :—

1. Man has the power of making instruments, which bring into view stars, whose light has taken a thousand years to reach the earth.
2. The first thing that man needed was some sharp-edged tool.
3. The exact time when the theft was committed was never found out.
4. The man by whom the theft was committed has been caught.
5. The house we lived in has fallen down.
6. This is the same story that I heard ten years ago.
7. It's an ill wind that blows no one any good.
8. This is not such a book as I should have chosen.
9. He made his living by the presents he received from the men he served.
10. All that glitters is not gold.
11. In ponds from which but a week before the wind blew clouds of dust, men now catch the re-animated fish.
12. A river is joined at places by tributaries that swell its waters.
13. Of what use is a knowledge of books to him who fails to practise virtue?
14. Fortune selects him for her lord, who reflects before acting.
15. Springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil.
16. Nuncoomar prepared to die with that quiet fortitude with which the Bengalee, so backward, as a rule, in personal conflict, often encounters calamities for which there is no remedy.
17. I have seen the house where Shakspeare was born.
18. The plan you acted on has answered well.
19. They accepted every plan we proposed.
20. Surely the story you are telling me is not true.
21. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just.
22. The night is long that never finds the day.
23. He travelled home by the way his father showed him.
24. There are times when every one feels a little sad.
25. Such men as are false to their friends should always be avoided.
26. I forgot to tell you the time when I shall return.

III. *The Adverb-Clause.*

231. An Adverb-Clause does the work of an Adverb to some verb, adjective, or adverb in some other clause.

An Adverb-Clause can be introduced by any of the Subordinative conjunctions, excepting the conjunction "that," when it is used in the sense of Apposition. (See § 275.)

<i>Principal Clause.</i>	<i>Adverb-Clause.</i>	<i>Subord. Conjunc.</i>
He will succeed,	<i>because</i> he works hard	<i>Cause.</i>
He worked so hard,	<i>that</i> he was quite tired	<i>Effect.</i>
He took medicine,	<i>that</i> he might get well	<i>Purpose.</i>
I will do this,	<i>if</i> I am allowed	<i>Condition.</i>
He is honest,	<i>although</i> he is poor	<i>Contrast.</i>
He likes you <i>more</i>	<i>than</i> (he likes) me	<i>Comparison.</i>
Men will reap	<i>as</i> they sow	<i>Extent or Manner.</i>
The sun will rise,	<i>sc long as</i> the world lasts	<i>Time.</i>

Note.—The Subordinative conjunctions have been described and enumerated in § 251. Besides these there is the class of Subordinative connectives, which in § 252 are enumerated under the name of Relative and Interrogative adverbs. These can be used for Noun-clauses and Adjective-clauses as well as for Adverb-clauses.

282. After the conjunctions *though*, *when*, *unless*, *till*, *if*, *whether*—*or*, and *while*, the Predicate-verb "to be" is often understood:—

{ Though much alarmed at the news, he did not lose all hope.
 { Though *he was* much alarmed, etc., he did not lose all hope.
 { He sprained his foot, while walking in the dark.
 { He sprained his foot, while *he was* walking in the dark.
 { His opinion, whether right or wrong, does not concern me.
 { His opinion, whether *it is* right or wrong, does not concern me.
 This must be kept, till (*it is*) called for.

283. When an Adverb-Clause is introduced by "than," its Predicate-verb is not always expressed, but can be understood or borrowed from the clause on which it depends:—

He loves you better than (he loves) me.

He loves you better than I (love you).

284. The Relative "who" or "which" makes an Adverb-Clause, whenever it is substituted for a Subordinative conjunction signifying Cause or Purpose. (See § 134, *Note*.)

Cause.—They should pardon my son, *who* (=because *he*) has never committed such a fault before.

Purpose.—A man was sent, *who* should deliver (=that *he* might deliver) the message.

Note.—The student can now therefore take note that four different kinds of clauses can be introduced by the Relative "who" or "which":—(1) A *Co-ordinate* Clause, where the Relative is used in a *Continuative* sense; see § 134 and § 268. This belongs to Compound sentences. (2) A *Non*-Clause, where no Antecedent to the Relative is expressed; see § 275. This belongs to Complex sentences. (3) An *Adjective*-Clause, where the Relative is used in a *Restrictive* sense; see § 134 and § 279. This belongs to Complex sentences. (4) An *Adverb*-Clause, where the Relative is used in the sense of *Cause* or *Purpose*. This also belongs to Complex sentences.

Pick out the Adverb-Clause or Clauses in the following. Show what word or phrase is qualified by every such clause, and what Adverbial relation is denoted thereby:—

1. He will succeed, because he has worked hard.
2. Men engage in some work, that they may earn a living.
3. He threatened to beat him, unless he confessed.
4. He was always honest, though he was poor.
5. This is not true, so far as I can tell.
6. He likes you as much as I do.
7. He tried for a long time before he succeeded.
8. Let us go to bed, as it is now late.
9. He walked with care, lest he should stumble.
10. I agree to this, provided you sign your name.
11. Though he punish me, yet will I trust in him.
12. He returned home, after he had finished the work.
13. Prove a friend, before you trust him.
14. When the cat's away, the mice will play.
15. He persevered so steadily, that he succeeded at last.
16. I will let off this man, who has been well punished already.
17. He sees very well, considering that he is sixty years of age.
18. I gave him a prize, that he might work harder next year.
19. They deserted their former associate, who had become poor and unfortunate.
20. As the tree falls, so will it lie.
21. Ever since we left the house, it has not ceased raining.
22. I would be glad to lend you that money, if I had as much in my own pocket.
23. Murder, though it have no tongue, will yet speak.
24. Unless you leave the house at once, I will send for a policeman.
25. A jackal, while prowling about the suburbs of a town, slipped into an indigo tank; and not being able to get out he laid himself down, so that he might be taken for dead.
26. The owner of the tank, when he beheld what seemed to be a dead jackal, carried the body into the jungle and there flung it down.
27. This one fact, if closely examined, proves the man to be guilty.
28. He is an honest man, though poor; and industrious, though old and rather infirm.
29. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven.—Milton.
30. If the trunk of a tree, when young and pliable, is not made to grow straight, it cannot be straightened afterwards, when old and stiff.
31. A rabbit cannot run so swiftly as a hare; but it is more skilful than a hare in digging the ground and boring holes under the earth.
32. The wild grey rabbit is not so large as the tame rabbit kept in a cage.

Example of a mixed sentence analysed.

The governor of the town, who was present, called out with a loud voice, and ordered Androcles to explain how a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden, that it became converted into a harmless animal, which preferred rather to spare its victim, than to devour him.

The Clause.	Kind of Clause.	Comma- bare.	I. Subject.	II. Adverb ative Ad- jectives (to Subject).	III. PREDICATE.			IV. Adverbial Adjectives (to Verb of Predicate).
					Finite Verb	Object with qualifying words,	Complement with qualifying words,	
A. The Governor of the town cried out with a loud voice,	Practical Clause.	... Co-ordinate to A. (§ 268).	the gov- ernor	of the town	cried out	<i>nūl</i>	<i>nūl</i>	with a loud voice,
B. Who was present,	Co-ordinate to A.	who	who	<i>nūl</i>	was	<i>nūl</i>	present,	<i>nūl</i>
C. And ordered Androcles to explain	Co-ordinate to A.	and (the gov- ernor)	<i>nūl</i>	ordered	Androcles	to explain, etc.		<i>nūl</i>
D. How a savage beast could have so forgotten its innate disposition all of a sudden,	Non-Clause object to <i>explain</i> in C.	How	a beast	savage	could have forgotten	its innate disposition	<i>nūl</i>	(a) how (b) so that, etc. (c) all of a sudden,
E. That it became converted into a harmless animal,	Adverb-Clause in continuation of <i>so</i> in D.	that	it	<i>nūl</i>	became	<i>nūl</i>	converted into a harmless animal, which, etc.	that
F. Which preferred rather to spare its victim	Adjective-Clause to <i>animal</i> in E.	which	<i>nūl</i>	preferred	to spare its victim	<i>nūl</i>	rather than, etc.	
G. Then devour him.	Adverb-Clause in continuation of <i>rather</i> in F.	than	(it)	<i>nūl</i>	(preferred)	<i>nūl</i>	to devour him.	than

Miscellaneous Examples for Analysis.

1. Blessed is the man that walketh not in the counsel of the wicked, nor standeth in the way of sinners, nor sitteth in the seat of the scornful. (*Four clauses.*)
2. Nothing can describe the confusion of thought which I felt when I sank into the water. (*Three clauses.*)
3. A blind man, carrying a lantern in his hand and a pitcher on his shoulder, was walking along one night, when he was met by a thoughtless young fellow, who laughed at him and said, "O fool! day and night must be alike to you: of what use can this lamp be to you?" (*Six clauses.*)
4. If man had had a skin thickly covered with hair or wool, as an ape or sheep has, he could not have moved from one climate to another with comfort; and so he is made naked, but not without the power of improving his condition, wherever he may be. (*Seven clauses.*)
5. Even as the driver checks a restive steed, so do thou, if thou art wise, restrain thy passion, which, if it runs wild, will hurry thee away. (*Five clauses.*)
6. Sometimes you may trace a river to a definite spring; but you very soon assure yourself that such springs are fed by rain, which has percolated through the rocks or soil, and which through some orifice, that it has found or formed, comes to the light of day. (*Seven clauses.*)
7. If you put the end of an iron rod in the fire and hold it there, you do something more than heat that end; for you heat the whole of it up to the end that you hold in your hand. (*Five clauses.*) (On the prepositional use of "than," see § 244.)
8. In his seventieth year Louis Carnaro had a fall by which he broke an arm and a leg. (*Two clauses.*)
With some men at that time of life so great a hurt would have been difficult to cure or might even have occasioned death; but with Carnaro, whose body was in the soundest condition, it was cured in a very short time. (*Four clauses.*)
9. Whoso keepeth the law is a wise son, but he that is a companion of riotous men shameth his father. (*Four clauses.*)
10. They expected that the king would either treat the matter as a pleasant jest or threaten the insolent darwesh with punishment; but to their surprise he was neither amused nor angry, but seriously attentive to the words of the darwesh. (*Six clauses.*)
11. Sir Isaac Newton, after deep meditation, discovered that there was a law in nature called attraction, by virtue of which every particle of matter that the world is composed of draws towards itself every other particle of matter with a force which is proportionate to its mass and distance. (*Five clauses.*)
12. After his schooling was finished, his father, desiring him to be a merchant like himself, gave him a ship freighted with various sorts of merchandise, so that he might go, and trade about the world, and grow rich, and become a help to his parents, who were now advanced in age. (*Seven clauses.*)
13. The rootlets at the ends of these fibres strike into the ground,

and when they have become well fixed in the earth, the sap which previously was flowing downwards changes its direction and flows upwards. (*Five clauses.*)

14. Stern Daughter of the voice of God,
 O Duty, if that name thou love,
 Who art a light to guide, a rod
 To check the erring, and reprove,
 Thou who art victory and law,
 When empty terrors overawe,—
 From vain temptations dost set free
 And calm'st the weary strife of frail humanity !
 There are who ask not if thine eye
 Be on them, who in love and truth,
 Where no misgiving is, rely
 Upon the genial sense of youth. (*Twelve clauses.*)

CHAPTER XI.

THE SAME WORD USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

A. *Indef. Article.* The sportsman shot *a* tiger.
Prep. He has gone *a*-hunting.

All. *Adj. of Quantity.* He ate *all* the bread.
Indef. Num. Adj. We must *all* die some day.
Adj. used as Noun. We lost our *all* on that day.
Adv. *All* bloodless lay the untrodden snow.

Any. *Adj. of Quantity.* Have you *any* bread?
Adv. of Qu. We must stop and rest before going *any* farther.
Num. Adjective. Did you bring *any* loaves?
Dem. Adjective. Take *any* book that you like best.

As. (a) *Relative pronoun* :—
 He is not such a fool *as* he looks.
 As many *men* as came were caught.
 Yours is not the same book *as* mine.

(b) *Relative adverb* (or subordinative conjunction) :—
Time. He trembled *as* (at what time) he spoke.
Manner. Do not act *as* (in what manner) he did.
State. He took it just *as* (in what state) it was.
Extent. *He is not as* (to that extent) clever *as* (to what extent) you are.
Reason. Hot *as* (to whatever extent) the sun is (= however hot the sun is), we must go out in it.

(c) *In Elliptical Phrases* :— all of these imply “extent.”
 I condemn you *as* a judge (to what extent or so far as I am a judge), but *as* a man (to what extent I am a man). I pity you.

I will inquire again *as to* (to what extent the question relates to) that matter.

As regards this journey (to what extent the question regards this journey), we can now decide nothing.

Better. *Comp. Adj.* My book is a *better* one than yours.

Comp. Adv. You are working *better* to-day.

Adj. used as Noun. Do not despise your *bettters*.

Both. *Def. Num. Adj.* Both the men have arrived.

Conj. Co-ord. He is *both* a fool and a knave.

But. *Adv.* There is *but* (only) one man present.

Prep. Who could have done this *but* (except) him?

I cannot *but* believe that you are lost. (I cannot believe anything *except* that, etc.)

Conj. Co-ord. He is a man of common sense, *but* not learned in books.

Conj. Subord. There was no one present, *but* (he) pitied (= who did not pity) the lame horse. (Here the "but" has the force of a Relative + Negative, § 133.)

Perdition catch my soul, *but* I love thee.—

Shakespeare. (May perdition catch my soul, *if* I do not love thee.)

Either. *Distrib. Adj.* He is ruined in *either* case.

Conj. Co-ord. He is *either* a fool or a knave.

Else. *Adv.* We could not catch any one *else*.

Conj. Co-ord. He has some real sorrow; *else* he would not weep as he does.

Enough. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has eaten *enough* bread.

Adj. of Number. We have *enough* loaves.

Adj. used as Noun. He had *enough* to do.

Half. *Adj. of Quantity.* *Half* measures do not succeed.

Adj. used as Noun. One *half* of his task is now done.

Adj. of Quantity. He was *half* dead with fear.

Little. *Adj. of Quality.* A *little* blow may give much pain.

Adj. of Quantity. He has eaten a *little* bread.

Adj. of Quantity. Let us wait here a *little*.

Adj. used as Noun. Man wants but *little* here below.

More. *Adj. of Quantity.* He eats *more* bread than you.

Adj. used as Noun. *More* is done than was expected.

Adj. of Quantity. I like him *more* than (I like) you.

Adj. of Number. *More* men came to-day than yesterday.

Adj. of Number. I saw him once *more*.

Much. *Adj. of Quantity.* He has wasted *much* time.

Adj. of Quantity. I am *much* pleased with your son.

Adj. used as Noun. You will not get *much* from me.

Neither. *Adj. Distrib.* I agree with *neither* side.

Conj. Co-ord. *Neither* you nor I can do that.

Near. *Adv.* Stand *near*, while I speak to you.

Prep. There is a fine tree *near* our house.

Adj. He is a *near* relative of mine.

Needs. *Verb.* The earth is very dry and *needs* rain.
Adv. He must *needs* know the reason of this, § 235.
Noun. Our *needs* or wants are few.

One. *Def. Num. Adj.* There is but *one* rupee left.
Indef. Dem. Pron. *One* is apt to waste *one's* time.

Only. *Def. Dem. Pron.* Your horse is white ; mine is a black *one*.
Adj. The *only* dog I had was stolen.
Adv. I heard of this *only* yesterday.
Conj. Co-ord. Do what you like ; *only* (=but whatever you do) keep silence.

Round. *Adj.* A square thing does not fit into a *round* hole.
Prep. Draw a circle *round* a given centre.
Adv. The flies are flying *round* and *round*.
Verb. Gama was the first to *round* the Cape of Good Hope.
Noun. Men must go their daily *round* of duty.

Since. *Prep.* I have not seen him *since* Monday last.
Adv. I took this house four weeks *since*.
Conj. Subord. We must trust you, *since* you are speaking in earnest.

Such. *Def. Dem. Adj.* He is not *such* a man as I expected.
Indef. Dem. Adj. He came to me on *such* a day.
Def. Dem. Pron. You are a coward ; I am not *such*.

That. *Def. Dem. Adj.* I am no admirer of *that* book.
Def. Dem. Pron. The light of the sun is brighter than *that* of the moon.
Relat. Pron. The book *that* you gave me is lost.
Effect. He aimed so well *that* he hit the mark.
Conj. Apposit. He heard *that* you had come.
Purpose. We must eat *that* we may live.

Than. *Conj. Subord.* I like this more *than* (I like) that.
Prep. These workmen, *than* whom I have never seen men more industrious, have left me.
Adv. of Time. He was fond of any drink other *than* wine.

Then. *Adv. of Time.* He was better *then* than he is now.
Conj. Co-ord. I see, *then*, we ought to start at once.

The. *Def. Article.* The ass is a dull animal.
Rel. Adv. of Quantity. The more, the merrier.
Simple Adv. of Quantity. He worked *the* harder, because he had hopes of success.

Too. *Adv. of Quantity.* He is *too* fond of play.
Conj. Co-ord. We *too* must expect to die some day.

Well. *Adv. of Quality.* He has done the work very *well*.
Adv. used as Noun. Leave *well* alone.
Conj. Co-ord. He has finished his work in time ; *well*, I did not expect it of such a lazy man.

What. *Inter. Pron.* What did you say ?
Inter. Adj. What house is that ? § 188 (c).
Adverb. What with illness and what with losses, the poor man is almost ruined (see page 272).

Yet. *Conj. Co-ord.* I have called ; yet no one answers.
Adv. of Time. You may *yet* (= even now, still) find him.

CHAPTER XII.—SYNTAX.

§ 1.—RELATIONS OF WORDS TO ONE ANOTHER.

PARSING CHART.

I. *Nouns.*

Kind of Noun.	Gender.	Number.	Case.
Proper	Masculine	Singular	Nominative
Common	Feminine	Plural	Possessive
Collective	Common		Objective
Material	Neuter		
Abstract			

II. *Pronouns.*

Kind of Pronoun.	Gender.	Number	Person.	Case.
Pers. { Simple	Masculine		1st	Nominative
Reflexive	Feminine	Singular	2nd	Possessive
Demons. { Definite	Common	Plural	3rd	Objective
Indefinite	Neuter			
Relative	If Relat. or Demons., agreeing in Gender,			
Interrogative	Number, and Person with its antecedent.			

III. *The Cases of Nouns or Pronouns.*

Nom. to Verb. as Compl. to Verb in Apposition of Address Absolute Possessive	Obj. to Verb as Compl. to Verb	Direct Indirect Retained Cognate Reflexive	Obj. in Apposition to Preposition Adverbial after certain Adjectives Interjectional

IV. *Adjectives.*

The Kind of Adjective.	Degree.	Use.
Proper. Of Quality. Numer. Of Quantity. Distributive. Demons.	{ Def. Indef. Def. Indef.	Positive Comparative Superlative Attributive Predicative

V. *Adverbs.*

Kind.	Degree.	Use.	Attributive Uses.
Simple Relative Interrogative	Positive Comparative Superlative	Attributive Predicative	To qualify Verb " " Adjective " " Adverb " " Preposition " " Conjunction " " Sentence

VI. *Finite Verbs.*

Kind of Verb.	Person.	Number.	Tense.	Form.
Transitive Intransitive Auxiliary	1st 2nd 3rd	Singular Plural	Present Past Future	Indefinite Continuous Perfect Perf. Contin.

Mood.	Voice.	
Indicative Imperative Subjunctive	Active Passive	Agreeing in number and person with its subject or subjects, expressed or understood.

VII. *Infinitive.*

Form.	(a) Use as Noun-Inf.	(b) Use as Gerundial Inf.
Indefinite Continuous Perfect Perf. Contin.	Subject to Verb Object to Verb Complement to Verb Object to Preposition Exclamatory	To qualify— " a Verb " a Noun { Attributively " " Predicatively " an Adjective To introduce a Parenthesis

VIII. *Participle or Verbal Adjective.*

Form.	Voice.	Kind of Verb.	Use.
Present			Attributive
Past			Predicative
Perfect	Active Passive	Transitive Intransitive	Complement Absolute Gerundive.

IX. *Gerund.*

Form.	Voice.	Kind of Verb.
Present Perfect	Active Passive	Transitive Intransitive

X. *Conjunctions.*

Co-ordinative.	Subordinative.
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285. *Nominative case.*—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(1) As Subject to a verb (see § 59):—

I did this. Rain is falling. You are tired.

(2) As Subjective Complement to a verb (see § 153):—

I am the man. Cæsar was declared emperor.

Note.—An Infinitive can come between the verb and the noun:—

He appeared to be a wise man.

(3) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Nominative case (see § 19):—

John, the carpenter, has succeeded well in business.

(4) For purposes of Address (see § 59):—

How art thou fallen, O Cæsar!

(5) In the Absolute construction (see § 28, a):—

Off we started, he remaining behind.

Note.—Without altering the sense, we could substitute the clause “while he remained behind” for the phrase “he remaining behind.” In the absolute construction the noun or pronoun is in the Nominative case, because (as we see from this) it is the *Subject to the Finite verb that is implied in the Participle.*

286. Possessive case.—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case qualifies Nouns and Gerunds as an adjective would do (§ 103, 4) :—

My son. The *barber's* shop. The *tiger's* claw.—*Noun.*
I was displeased at *his* going away without leave. { *Gerund*
This was a plan of *your* contriving. { (§ 210).

(b) When two Possessive nouns are in apposition with each other, or are connected by "and," the apostrophe *s* is not added to the noun that stands *first* (see § 65) :—

Herod married his *brother* Philip's wife.
Maple and Company's firm.

(c) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case can be the Complement to a verb; (for Pronouns, see § 116) :—

That book is *mine*, not *yours*.
This shop seems to be a *barber's*.

287. Objective case.—See No. III. of Parsing Chart.

(1) As Object to a verb (§ 164, Note) :—

- (a) The master teaches *Euclid*. (*Direct.*)
- (b) He teaches *his sons* *Euclid*. (*Indirect.*)
- (c) His sons were taught *Euclid*. (*Retained.*)
- (d) The fever will run *its course*. (*Cognate.*)
- (e) He sat *himself* down. (*Reflexive.*)

(2) As Objective Complement to a verb (§ 153) :—

The citizens made him their *king*.

Note.—An Infinitive can come between the verb and the noun :—

The people considered him *to be* a wise man.

(3) In Apposition with a noun or pronoun in the Objective case (§ 19) :—

The people of England beheaded Charles I., their *king*.

(4) As Object to a preposition (§ 60) :—

He fought against *me*. A house built on *sand*.

(5) Adverbial Objective:—so called, because such phrases qualify words as an adverb would do (§ 236, 5) :—

He lived ten *years* (Time). He walked ten *miles* (Space). This cost ten *rupees* (Price). That box weighs ten *seers* (Weight). The air is a *trifle* hotter to-day (Degree). Bind him *hand* and *foot* (Attendant circumstance).

(6) Objective after the adjectives "like" or "unlike,"

“near,” “next.” (This has probably arisen from the omission of the preposition “*to*,” which is still sometimes used after these adjectives):—

No man could bend the bow *like him*.

The house *nearest the grove* is the one that I prefer.

(7) Objective after Interjections or in exclamatory phrases:—

Unhappy *me*! Oh unhappy *man*! Oh dear *me*!
Foolish *fellow*! to have wasted his time as he has done!

288. The two uses of Adjectives.—See No. IV. of Parsing Chart.

(a) Attributive use (§ 102):—

An *industrious* student will generally succeed.

(b) Predicative use (§ 102):—

He was *industrious*, and therefore he succeeded.

289. Noun or Gerund used as an Adjective (§ 103, 3). A noun or gerund can be used attributively for an adjective, but not predicatively:—

A *village* watchman. *Drinking* water.

A *sea* captain. *Marble* halls. A *bathing* place.

290. Adjective substituted for Adverb.—An adverb qualifying a verb can be changed into an adjective qualifying the subject to the verb. The adjective in this case is an “adverbial adjunct” (§ 266, c):—

He went away *sad*. The stars are shining *bright*.

And *furious* every charger neighed.—*Campbell*.

Dark lowers the tempest overhead.—*Longfellow*.

And *fearless* there the lowly sleep.—*Mrs. Hemans*.

They neither toil nor spin, but *careless* grow.—*Thompson*.

Slow rises worth, by poverty suppressed.—*Johnson*.

Note 1.—When the adverb qualifies *any part of speech except a verb*, we cannot substitute an adjective for it. Thus we cannot say “He is *immense* clever” for “He is *immensely* clever.”

Note 2.—In poetry an adjective and adverb are sometimes coupled together by “and.”

When *faint* and *wearily* he drags

Along his noontide way.—*Southern*.

Trip it *deft* and *merrily*.—*Scott*.

Very *carefully* and *slow*.—*Tennyson*.

Here either one *-ly* is made to do duty for both adjectives; or the construction is mixed, the adjective qualifying the subject, and the adverb the verb.

291. **Pronoun and Antecedent.**—See Nos. II. and III. of Parsing Chart.

(a) A Pronoun must be in the same person, number, and gender as its Antecedent; but in case it depends upon its own sentence. (This is called a Concord or Agreement.)

After *Cæsar* was declared *emperor* (Nominative), they slew *him* (Objective).

You must return the *book* (Objective), *which* (Nominative) was lent.

(b) A Relative pronoun, if the choice lies between two Antecedents, and these are not of the same person, agrees in person with the one *nearest to it* :—

You are the man who *is* chosen.

Correct the mistakes in the following sentences :—

I am the man who seek to help thee in distress. Thou art the man who fleest away in the time of danger. Art thou the chief who brokest the power of the enemy?

292. **The two uses of Adverbs.**—See No. V. of Parsing Chart.

(a) **Attributive use** (§ 239). An adverb, when it is used attributively, may qualify anything except a noun or pronoun:—

- (1) *Adjective*.—He is *remarkably clever*.
- (2) *Verb*.—*Act decisively*, if you act at all.
- (3) *Other Adverb*.—He explained his views *remarkably well*.
- (4) *Preposition*.—The sun stood *exactly over* our heads.
- (5) *Conjunction*.—You may go *only if* you promise to return.
- (6) *Sentence*.—*Fortunately*, all the thieves were caught.

(b) **Predicative use** (§ 239). Here the adverb is Complement (Subjective or Objective) to the verb going before:—

- (1) *Subjective*.—The results will soon be *out* (=published).
- (2) *Objective*.—We found him quite *well* (=in perfect health).

293. **Verb and Subject.**—See No. VI. of Parsing Chart as to Number and Person.

A Finite verb must be in the same number and person as its Subject (§ 170). (This is another Concord or Agreement.)

Make the verbs agree properly with their subjects in the following examples :—

When you *was* here last, you *was* very fond of reading. The pleasures of life vanishes, when we *becomes* old and infirm. Thou would have seen the horse, if it *had come* towards us. School *is*

broken up and the boys is playing at cricket. The Taj Mahal at Agra have stood a great many years. You is not the man that I want. I am still as fond of books as when you was here before. The movement of most quadrupeds are very swift. You wilt be rewarded with a prize for your industry. The following plans has been settled. The origin of Hindu manners and customs are unknown.

294. The Third Person of Verbs.—A verb is invariably in the Third person, except when the Subject is a Personal pronoun in the First or Second person (§ 22):—

- (a) *Noun*.—A snake is crawling through the grass.
- (b) *Pronoun*.—He returns to us to-morrow.
- (c) *Infinitive*.—To err is human.
- (d) *Gerund*.—Sleeping gives rest to the body.
- (e) *Phrase*.—How to do this was unknown to every one.
- (f) *Clause*.—That we must all die is certain.

295. Subjects not of the same Person.—(a) When two or more Subjects, not of the same Person, are joined by “and,” the verb is in the First person rather than the Second, and in the Second rather than the Third; and the First person should be mentioned last:—

James and I are (=we are) great friends.

(b) When two Subjects are joined by “or” or “nor,” the verb agrees in person with the Subject nearest to it:—

Either James or I am at the top of the class.

Either you or James has done it.

Neither James nor you were present.

It would be better, however, to repeat the verb for each Subject. The sentences would then be re-written as follows:—

Either James is at the top of the class, or I am.

Either you have done it, or James has.

Neither James was present, nor were you.

(c) When two Subjects are joined by “as well as,” the verb agrees in number and person with the first one:—

My comrades as well as I myself were caught.

The reason of this rule is that “My comrades were caught” is the Principal clause, to which the other clause introduced by “as well as” is Co-ordinate.

296. Two Singular Nouns with Plural Verb.—Two or more Singular nouns, when they are joined by “and,” require a verb in the Plural.

A man and his wife have come here asking for work.

Your horse and mine (=my horse) are both at the door.

To this rule there are two exceptions:—

(a) If the two nouns joined by "and" refer to the same person or thing, the verb is Singular, and not Plural; as—

The great scholar and poet is dead.

Here "scholar" and "poet" refer to the same man, and the sentence might have been written:—

The man, who was a great scholar and a great poet, is dead.

Note.—When the article is mentioned *only once*, as in the sentence "the great scholar and poet," it stands for both the nouns. This shows that *only one* person (and not two) is intended, and that hence the verb must be singular.

But if the article is mentioned twice, as in the sentence "the scholar and the poet," then two distinct persons are intended, and the verb following must be in the plural number; as—

The scholar and the poet are dead.

(b) If the two nouns joined by "and" are regarded as denoting a *single object or notion*, the verb is Singular; as—

Truth and honesty *is* the best policy. Curry and rice *was* his favourite food. Slow and steady *wins* the race.

Here "truth and honesty" = the practice of truth and honesty, and hence the verb following is singular. Similarly, "curry and rice" = the food consisting of curry and rice, or the mixture of curry and rice. "Slow and steady" = the plan of being slow and steady.

297. One Singular Noun with Plural Verb.—A noun of *Multitude* (as distinct from a *Collective* noun, see § 39), is followed by a Plural verb:—

{ The jury (*i.e.* the individual jurors, or men of the jury), *were* divided in *their* opinions, and could not agree as to the verdict.

{ The jury (as one body) selected *its* speaker.

{ The multitude (individual men and women) *rise* from *their* seats and shout applause.

{ This multitude (as one body) *is* too large to be contained in so small a building.

298. The Simple or Noun-Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Simple or Noun-Infinitive may be (a) the Subject to a verb, (b) the Object to a verb, (c) the Complement to a verb, (d) the Object to a preposition (although this is very uncommon), (e) a form of exclamation (see § 195):—

(a) *Subj. to Verb.*—*To sleep* is necessary to health.

(b) *Obj. to Verb.*—We desire *to improve*.

(c) *Comp. to Verb.*—He appears *to be clever*.

(d) *Obj. to Prepos.*—Your cow is about (=near) *to die* (=death).

(e) *Form of Exclam.*—*To think* that he should have deceived me!

299. The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive.—See No. VII. of the Parsing Chart.

The Gerundial or Qualifying Infinitive may be used—(a) to qualify a verb, in which case it does the work of an adverb; (b) to qualify a noun, in which case it does the work of an adjective; (c) to qualify an adjective, in which case it does the work of an adverb; (d) to introduce a parenthesis, in which case it is absolute (see § 196):—

- (a) *Verb*.—They went out to see the sport.
- (b) *Noun* { A house to let. (*Attributive*.)
This house is to let. (*Predicative*.)
- (c) *Adjective*.—Be quick to hear and slow to speak.
- (d) *Parenthesis*.—He is,—to speak plainly,—a thief.

Note.—In qualifying a noun, the Infinitive is sometimes used in the Passive voice. No rule, however, can be given as to when the Active voice is the more idiomatic and when the Passive:—

- A man to be admired. (*Attributive*.)
- That man is to be admired. (*Predicative*.)

300. The three uses of Participles.—See No. VIII. of the Parsing Chart.

- (a) *Attributive use* (see § 102 for Adjectives):—

A willing horse. A fallen tree. A withered flower.

(b) *Predicative use*.—This may occur either (1) when the Participle is Complement to some verb (see § 102 again), or (2) when the Participle is used absolutely with some noun going before (see §§ 28 (a) and 285, 5):—

- (1) { We found him sleeping. (*Object. Complet.*)
He became alarmed. (*Subject. Complet.*)
- (2) Our pace was slow, the horse being tired. (*Absolute*.)

Note 1.—That the Participle is predicative in the Absolute construction is clear from the fact that an absolute phrase can be easily rewritten in the form of a subordinate clause, in which a Finite verb or predicate is substituted for the Participle:—

{ Our pace was slow, the horse being tired.
{ Our pace was slow, because the horse was tired.

Note 2.—When no noun or pronoun is expressed, the Participle is called an **Impersonal Absolute** (see § 28, a, and § 243, 4).

Supposing this to be true, you are certainly guilty.

(c) *Gerundive use* (§ 211).—Here the Participle denotes that something is to be done, and implies a Verbal noun:—

- { This prevented the letter being sent ;=
- { This prevented the sending of the letter.

Parsed Sentence.

Brahmadatta, king of Benares, took a journey through the length and breadth of his kingdom to see if his subjects were happy.

Brahmadatta—Proper noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, subject to the verb “took.”

King—Common noun, masculine gender, singular number, nominative case, in apposition to “Brahmadatta.”

Of—Preposition having “Benares” as its object.

Benares—Proper noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the preposition “of.”

Took—Verb transitive, third person, singular number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, active voice, agreeing with its subject “Brahmadatta,” and having “journey” for its object.

Journey—Common noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case after the verb “took.”

Through—Preposition having “length” and “breadth” for its objects.

Length—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

And—Co-ordinative conjunction, joining the two nouns “length” and “breadth.”

Breadth—Abstract noun, neuter gender, singular number, objective case to the preposition “through.”

Of—Preposition having “kingdom” for its object.

His—Personal (or demonstrative) pronoun, masculine gender, singular number, possessive case, third person; agreeing in gender, number, and person with its antecedent “Brahmadatta.” Qualifies the noun “kingdom.”

Kingdom—Common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case after the preposition “of.”

To see—Verb transitive, infinitive mood, present indefinite form, gerundial in use, qualifying the verb “took”; transitive verb having for its object the clause “if . . . happy.”

If—Subordinative conjunction.

His—(To be parsed as above.)

Subjects—Common noun, common gender, plural number, nominative case, subject to the verb “were.”

Were—Verb intransitive, third person, plural number, past indefinite tense, indicative mood, agreeing with its subject “subjects.”

Happy—Adjective of quality, positive degree, predicative in use, subjective complement to the verb “were.”

§ 2.—POSITION OF WORDS.

Adjective and Noun.

301. The position of an Adjective in relation to its noun generally depends upon whether the adjective is used *attributively* or *predicatively* (see § 102).

Adjectives used Attributively.

302. When an adjective is used attributively, the invariable rule is to keep it *as close as possible* to the noun which it qualifies.

303. In *prose* the adjective almost always precedes its noun. In *poetry*, for the sake of rhyme or metre, it may be placed after its noun:—

Prose.

A just man. *Bright prospects.* *This rose.* *Other roses.*
Much pain. *Ten men.* *The fifth class.* *Double promotion.*

Poetry.

He sang to lords and ladies gay
The unpremeditated lay.—*Scott.*
The old man eloquent.—*Byron.*

304. When an adjective is enlarged by some qualifying phrase, it must always be placed *after* its noun:—

A man dear to all. A matter too *urgent* to be put off any longer.
A doctor well *practised* in all the arts of medicine and *worthy* of public confidence. Bread *enough* and to spare.

Note.—In such examples as the above the adjective must be placed after its noun, in consequence of the “invariable rule” given in § 302; for if we said “*a dear to all man*,” the words “*to all*” would separate the qualifying adjective from its noun.

305. When several adjectives qualify the same noun at once, they can be placed either before or after their noun:—

A horse strong, swift, and young; or a strong, swift, and young horse.

Note 1.—If one of the adjectives is much longer than the other, it sounds better to put the shorter one first:—

An old and conscientious servant.
The shorter and less laborious of the two methods.

Note 2.—If the adjectives consist of *long* words, it sounds better to place them after the noun:—

God is the maker of all things visible and invisible, animate and inanimate.

306. Sometimes an adjective is placed after its noun for the sake of point or emphasis.

How does this position give point or emphasis to the adjective? Because the natural position of the adjective is to stand *before* its

noun. By putting it out of its natural place, greater attention is drawn to it.

Things *temporal* are less precious than things *eternal*.

No man *living* could have done so well.

I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

The body *natural* and the body *politic*.

307. For the sake of emphasis or distinction (as explained in the previous paragraph) an adjective used as a *qualifying title* is placed after its noun:—

Alfred the *Great*. Alexander the *Great*. Yudisthir the *Just*.

Ethelred the *Unready*. Albert the *Good*. Louis the *Pious*.

Charles the *Fat*. Philip the *Fair*. Richard the *Lion-hearted*.

Charles the *Bold*.

To the same principle must be ascribed the position of the titles "Elder" and "Younger"; as—

Cato the *Elder*; Cato the *Younger*.

Pliny the *Elder*; Pliny the *Younger*.

Kings of the same name have been distinguished into first, second, third, etc., to indicate their historical order. These titles of order are usually shown by means of Roman figures, I., II., III., and they always stand last:—

Edward I. (=Edward the First), Edward II. (=Edward the Second).

308. There are certain stock phrases, in which it has become idiomatic to place the adjective after its noun.

This is chiefly due to what has been borrowed from the French language or French idiom; but it has sometimes been done for the sake of emphasis or antithesis:—

The body politic = the state or community. (This is due to the old antithesis between the body *natural*, that is, the body of the individual man as made by nature, and the body *politic* or the collective body as made by society.)

Malice prepense: some evil purpose previously devised or meditated.

Heir apparent: one who by right of birth, and hence "to all appearances," will succeed to the throne or to some estate.

Lords Temporal and Spiritual: this is the distinction between those who are peers or lords by temporal or worldly rank, and those who are lords by spiritual or ecclesiastical rank.

Notary public: one who registers deeds, wills, and other legal documents for the public.

Knight errant: a knight who makes it his business to move from place to place in search of wrongs to be righted.

Governor-General; *Inspector-General*; *Viceroy elect*; *bishop elect*, etc. (The adjective "elect" denotes an officer who has been

nominated or selected for the post, but has not yet been formally appointed.)

The sum *total*; price *current*; a fiend *incarnate*; a god *incarnate*; point *blank* (the white or blank spot in the centre of a target); letters *patent*; lord *paramount*; things *temporal*; things *eternal*.

Adjectives used Predicatively.

309. When an adjective is used predicatively, it is placed after its noun:—

(a) *When the verb is Intransitive or in the Passive voice:—*

All men are *mortal*. He lay *dead* on the ground. He became *very rich*. He was left *rich* by his father. He was considered *wise*. (*Subjective Complement.*)

(b) *When the verb is Transitive and in the Active voice:—*

My father left me *poor*, but *well educated*. The judge declared him *guilty*. (*Objective Complement.*)

310. But for the sake of emphasis, we may place the predicative adjective (or participle) first, so as to draw more attention to it (§ 153, Note 2):—

Great is Diana of the Ephesians.

Disgraced you are, and will remain.

Sweet are the uses of adversity.

Adverbs.

311. If the word to be qualified is an Adjective, or an Adverb, or a Preposition, or a Conjunction, the qualifying Adverb is placed immediately before it.

<i>Adjective</i>	{ We are <i>half</i> pleased and <i>half</i> sorry.
or	The mango you brought was <i>quite</i> ripe.
<i>Participle</i>	{ Your pay is <i>too</i> high for your work.
	{ A snake creeps <i>very</i> silently.
<i>Adverb</i>	{ He stood <i>far</i> apart from me.
	{ He seized my hand <i>rather</i> eagerly.
	{ He arrived <i>long</i> before the time.
<i>Preposition</i>	{ We sat <i>almost</i> in the shade.
	{ He stood <i>exactly</i> behind me.
<i>Conjunction</i>	{ Tell me <i>precisely</i> how it happened.
	{ I like a mango <i>only</i> when it is ripe.
	{ He did this <i>merely</i> because he was ordered.

Note.—There is one exception to the above rule. The word "enough" (when it is an Adverb and not an Adjective) is placed after the word it qualifies:—

Your pay is good *enough* for your work.

He spoke *highly enough* of what you had done.

312. If the verb to be qualified is *Intransitive*, the qualifying Adverb is placed immediately *after* it:—

He lived *well* and died *happily*.

He laughed *heartily* at that joke.

He spoke *foolishly* about his own merits.

Note.—Adverbs denoting time are an exception to this rule; for the Adverbs *always*, *never*, *often*, *sometimes*, *generally*, *rarely*, and *seldom* are usually placed *before*, and not *after*, the verb they qualify.

He *always* laughed at a good joke.

He *never* spoke about his own merits.

He *often* came here to see me.

He *sometimes* slept in my house.

He *seldom* stayed with me for long.

But they can be placed after as well as before the verb “*to be*” :—

He is *seldom* absent. He *seldom* is absent.

313. If the verb to be qualified is *Transitive*, the qualifying adverb must not be allowed to separate the verb and its object.

The Adverb must therefore be placed either *before the verb* or *after the Object*; but it is more commonly placed *after the object*:—

He bore his losses *cheerfully*.

He did his work *patiently* till sunset.

He *briefly* explained his meaning.

Sometimes, however, if the object is qualified by a clause, or consists of a good many words, the adverb may come between the verb and its object:—

He rewarded *liberally* all those who had served him well.

But this is scarcely as idiomatic as, “He *liberally* rewarded,” etc.

314. If the tense of the verb is formed by an Auxiliary verb, the adverb is generally placed *between* the Auxiliary verb and the Principal verb:—

The wind has *suddenly* risen. Your son will *soon* return.

I have *quite* understood you. He is *almost* dying, I fear.

Similarly the Negative adverb “*not*” is always placed between the Auxiliary verb and the Principal verb:—

We have *not* seen him since Monday last.

I did *not* know how ill he was.

We shall *not* punish him severely.

Correct the position of the adverb in the following sentences :—

He *exactly* stood in front of me. He explained *clearly* his words.

I have read *often* that book. He struck *severely* the ox with his whip.

He *soon* will return home. He *almost* has finished his task.

The rain began to fall *suddenly*. Your teacher is *enough* pleased with your industry. He went out *seldom* before sunset.

315. An Adverb is placed first in a sentence—(a) when it is intended to qualify *the whole sentence*, (b) when it is used *very emphatically*.

(a) *Luckily* no one was inside, when the roof fell in.

(b) *Down* went the Royal George with all her crew complete.

—Cowper.

The meaning of the two sentences given below depends entirely on the position of the adverb:—

(1) *Happily* he did not die.

(2) He did not die *happily*.

In (1) the adverb qualifies the entire sentence, because it stands first (as just explained). In (2) it qualifies the Intransitive verb "die," because it is placed immediately after it; see § 312. So (1) means, "It was a happy result that he did not die"; and (2) means, "He did not die a happy death."

316. *Only*.—The meaning of a sentence depends upon the position of this word:—

(a) *Only* he promised to read the first chapter of that book.

Here "only" is an Adjective, and not an Adverb. As an adjective it qualifies the pronoun "he."

He alone, and no one else, promised to read the first chapter, etc.

(b) He *only* promised to read the first chapter of that book.

Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "promised"; and the meaning is that he merely or only promised, but did not perform the promise.

(c) He promised *only* to read the first chapter of that book.

That is, he did not promise to study, analyse, or remember, but *only to read*. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the verb "read."

(d) He promised to read *only* the first chapter of that book.

That is, he promised to read nothing more than the *first chapter*. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the adjective "the first."

(e) He promised to read the first chapter of that book *only* (or, *only* of that book).

That is, he promised to read the first chapter of no other book but that. Here "only" is an Adverb qualifying the phrase "of that book."

Subject and Object.

317. As a general rule, in ordinary English prose, the Subject precedes its verb; but the following exceptions should be noted:—

(a) When the verb is Intransitive, and the verb is preceded by the introductory adverb "there" (see § 29):—

On the whole *there* is nothing to prove his guilt.

There came a messenger from the king's court.

(b) When the verb is used for asking a question:—

At what hour in the morning does *he* get up?

How came *you* to catch such a bad cold?

What are *you* carrying in that bag?

(c) When the verb is Imperative in mood or sense:—

Go *ye* into all the world and preach the gospel to every creature.—

New Testament.

Whither our path lies: wind *we* up the height.—*Browning.*

N.B.—Usually, however, no subject is expressed when the verb is in the Second person: The second example is not a real Imperative, but a Subjunctive used in an Imperative sense (see § 180).

(d) When the verb is used in the Subjunctive mood to express a wish; or when a wish is expressed by the auxiliary "may" (see § 190, 2):—

Long live *the king*.

May *he* never again come inside this house.

(e) When the verb is used in the Subjunctive mood to express a condition, and the "if" is omitted (see § 190, 3):—

Should *he* meet me, he would know me at once.

Had *he* met me, he would have known me.

Were *I* certain of his motives, I could trust him.

(f) When the verb is used to report a speech in the Direct Narration, and is thrust into the middle of the reported speech (§ 424):—

"Agreed," said *the prince*, "we will go there to-night."

"Let me not live," quoth *he*.

(g) When a *predicative* Adjective or Participle is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis; (see § 153, Note 2, and § 310):—

Great was *the delight* of the citizens.

Blessed are the *merciful*; for they shall obtain mercy.

(h) When an adverb is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis (see § 315):—

Up rose *the men* at the word of command.

There goes *the thief*; catch him, if you can.

(i) When two simple sentences are joined together by a pair of correlative words, the subject in one of the clauses is often put after its verb or after the auxiliary verb:—

As men sow, so will *they* also reap.

The more I saw of him, the less did *I* like him.

So rotten was *the boat*, that it very soon sank.

No sooner did *he* begin to speak, than every one was silent.

Scarcely had *we* reached home, before it began raining.

(j) When the object is placed before its verb, the subject must be placed after it:—

Silver and gold have I none.

318. The object to a verb is placed immediately after the verb, except when the object is a Relative or Interrogative pronoun, or unless it is placed at the beginning of a sentence for the sake of emphasis (see § 147).

The house that we occupy suits us well. (Relative.)

What kind of book do you like best? (Interrogative.)

Silver and gold have I none. (Emphasis.)

319. No other words except (1) an adjective or participle, or (2) a noun or pronoun in the Possessive case, or (3) a noun or gerund used as an adjective, should as a general rule be allowed to come between a verb and its object.

Thus it is against idiom to say, "I have finished *thoroughly* this work." We should say, "I have thoroughly finished this work"; or "I have finished this work thoroughly."

But if the object is qualified by an Adjective-clause, it may be separated from its verb by an Adverbial phrase:—

Nobler and loftier emotions lit up with a generous enthusiasm the hearts of men who had heavy sacrifices still to make.

Relative and Antecedent.

320. A Relative pronoun or Relative adverb must always be placed as close as possible to its antecedent.

I have read a translation of Plato's writings, who succeeded Socrates.

Here it would have been better to say "the writings of *Plato, who succeeded*," etc., because by this change the Relative and its Antecedent are not separated by the word "writings."

Preposition and Object.

321. In prose (not always in poetry) the preposition is placed immediately before its object. But the following exceptions should be noted:—

(a) When the object is "whom," "which," or "what," the preposition *may be* placed last in the sentence and its object first.

That is the man whom we were looking for. (Relative.)

Which of these chairs did you sit on? (Interrogative.)

(b) When the object is the Relative pronoun "that," the preposition is *invariably* put last.

This is the man that we were looking for.

(c) When the object is a Relative pronoun understood, the preposition is invariably put last :—

This is the man (whom) we were looking for.

(d) A noun or pronoun in the Possessive case or any other qualifying words may come between a preposition and its object :—

He came to the *barber's* shop.

(e) In poetry the preposition is sometimes placed after its noun :—

They dashed that rapid torrent *through*.

Note on Concord and Government.

The plan adopted in some books on English Grammar is to subdivide the subject of Syntax under two main headings :—

I. Concord or Agreement. II. Government.

In a highly inflected language, such as Latin, Sanskrit, or the Old English, a subdivision of that kind is useful, since the inflections of words depend chiefly on their mutual concord or agreement and on the extent to which they govern or are governed by one another.

In modern English, however, in which very few of the old inflections have been retained, the subdivision of Syntax into rules of Concord and rules of Government is of scarcely any use ; for it leaves the greater part of the ground untouched. The only points on which these principles are seen at work are the following :—

Concord or Agreement.

(1) The verb must agree with its subject in Number and Person. (This, together with the apparent exceptions thereto, has been set forth in § 293.)

(2) The Demonstrative adjective "this" or "that" must be of the same number as the noun it qualifies. (These are the only two adjectives which have retained one form for the Singular and another for the Plural.)

(3) A pronoun must be of the same Number, Gender, and Person as its antecedent. (So far as inflection is concerned, this applies only to the Demonstrative pronouns and to the Relative pronoun "who" or "which." The other Relatives have no change of form.)

(4) A noun in apposition with a pronoun or other noun must be in the same case. (This is shown in § 285 (3) and § 287 (3). The only case that is now indicated by an inflection is the Possessive, and even this case drops its inflection when it is in apposition with another Possessive. See § 286.)

Government.

All that we can say on this point is that certain Verbs, two or three Adjectives, and all Prepositions govern a noun or pronoun in the Objective case.

CHAPTER XIII.

PUNCTUATION, OR THE RIGHT USE OF STOPS.

322. Punctuation divides one sentence from another sentence, or one part of a sentence from another part, by means of points, stops, or marks.

323. The names of the different points, stops, or marks used for this purpose are:—

Comma, indicated by	:	Note of exclamation, indicated by	!
Semicolon, indicated by	:	Brackets, indicated by	() or []
Colon, indicated by	:	Dash, indicated by	—
Full stop or period, indicated by	.	Hyphen, indicated by	-
Note of interrogation, indicated by	?	Inverted commas, indicated by	" "
Apostrophe, indicated by	'		

The Comma.

324. The comma represents the shortest pause. Its chief uses in a simple sentence are the following:—

(a) Between nouns or pronouns in apposition; as—

Alexander, the son of Philip, *king of Macedon.*

(b) Between three or more words of the same Part of Speech, when only the last two are connected by "and."

Greece, Italy, and Spain are the peninsulas of Southern Europe.
(*Nouns.*)

We should live soberly, prudently, and industriously at all times.
(*Adverbs.*)

Early to bed and early to rise

Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise. (*Adjectives.*)

(c) After the Nominative of address:—

Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.

(d) After an absolute construction:—

The sun having set, we all went home.

(e) When words of the same class or rank go together in pairs, each pair is separated by a comma:—

By night or by day, at home or abroad, asleep or awake, he is a constant source of anxiety to his father.

(f) After an adverbial phrase at the commencement of a sentence. (Here, however, the comma can be put in or not, at the option of the writer.)

In fact, his poetry is no better than prose. At last, he has gained his point.

(g) Before and after a participial phrase, provided that the participle might be expanded into a sentence, and is not used in a merely qualifying sense (see § 204) :—

Cæsar, having defeated the Gauls, led his army into Britain. (Here “having defeated” means “after he had defeated.”)

Convinced of the accuracy of his facts, he stuck to his opinion. (Here “convinced” means “because he was convinced.”)

But when the participle qualifies the noun so as merely to *restrict* its meaning, as an adjective would do, the comma should not be used :—

A dog lying asleep on a public road is likely to be run over.
A man convinced against his will is of the same opinion still.

(h) Before certain co-ordinative conjunctions :—

He is not a madman, *but* a knave.

He is not only accused, *but also* convicted.

He hoped, *then*, that he would be pardoned.

(i) Explanatory phrases are separated by commas :—

The field was oblong, 60 yards in length, 40 in breadth.

(j) Before and after gerundial Infinitives used in an explanatory or parenthetical sense :—

I am, to tell you the truth, thoroughly sick of work.

To sum up, the man was convicted of three charges.

(k) A comma is sometimes used to introduce a sentence quoted in Direct Narration. The sentence so quoted must be commenced with a capital letter :—

What I say unto you I say unto all, Watch.—*New Testament*.

(l) A comma is sometimes inserted to mark the omission and save the repetition of a verb :—

My regiment is bound for India; yours, for Gibraltar.

325. (a) In a compound sentence the co-ordinate clauses, when they are expressed at full length, are generally separated by a comma :—

His vanity is greater than his ignorance, and what he lacks in knowledge is supplied by impudence.

But when the two sentences are not expressed at full length or are very closely allied, the comma is omitted.—

I made haste and caught him.

I took up a stone and threw it at the mad dog.

(b) If no conjunction is used to connect co-ordinate clauses, these must be separated by a comma or by a semi-colon :—

(1) When they are short, they are separated by a comma :—

Steam propels, elevates, lowers, pumps, drains, pulls, drives, etc.

(2) When they are long, they are separated by a semi-colon :—

Between fame and true honour there is much difference ; the former is blind applause ; the latter is an internal and more silent homage.

326. In complex sentences the following rules regarding the use of commas should be noted :—

(a) A Noun-clause is not usually separated by a comma from the Principal clause :—

It is generally allowed that the art of teaching is difficult.

No one knows when he will come.

His being pardoned depends upon whether he will confess his fault or not.

But Noun-clauses must be separated from each other by commas, when they are objects or subjects to the same verb :—

No one knows when he will come, or whether he will come at all, or whether he is even alive.

Who he was, or why he came, or what he intends to do, will all be found out in time.

(b) An Adjective-clause is not separated from the Principal clause by a comma, unless it (the Adjective-clause) is rather lengthy :—

The man *we saw* yesterday has come again to-day.

Fortune selects him for her lord, *who reflects before acting*.

(c) An Adverb-clause is always or almost always separated by a comma from the Principal clause :—

He will succeed, because he works hard.

I will gladly do this, if I am allowed.

The comma is never omitted, unless the Adverb-clause is either very short or very closely connected with the Principal clause :—

He likes you better than me.

Send me word before you start.

Insert commas, where necessary, in the following sentences:—

The triple alliance consists of Germany Austria and Italy. My son so far from being blamed for his conduct was commended and even rewarded. The roof of the house having caught fire the inmates fled and remained outside the house until the fire was put out. Towns villages and hamlets were all alike attacked with the epidemic of cholera. I shall be happy to make the attempt that you speak of if I am permitted. From morning till noon from noon to evening from evening to midnight this same grief never leaves him. Early this morning when we had just left the house we met the man that we had been looking for. He found as I expected he would that the house he had lately purchased was a bad one. What was the cause of so much grief to him was never known to any of us. I hope my friend that you will come and spend at least a week with us. He has now grown so old that he spends most of his time in sleeping taking his food or sitting in an easy-chair. I remain my dear sir yours faithfully William Matthews. I shall not leave home for business unless you set the example. Example as the proverb says is the sincerest form of precept. To tell you the plain truth I should be glad to retire from business altogether considering that I am now past sixty years of age and have a son to succeed me. The boatman shouted to a man on shore throw out the rope. A snake sleeping in the grass will bite if any one treads upon it. The prisoner having been convicted of the crime of which he was accused must make up his mind to suffer the penalty. The building is a noble structure of red brick and comprises a reading-room a library a room for writing letters and a room for refreshments. It is quite true that this fine building was erected by private subscriptions. In fact of all that was subscribed L. gave the largest amount in cash but M. was not less liberal because he gave the land on which the building was erected. A dog barking at nothing is a nuisance.

The Semicolon.

327. The Semicolon is used, when a greater pause is required than is indicated by the comma.

Its chief uses are as follows:—

(a) To separate *longer* clauses from one another. Here a greater pause is necessary to prevent the sentences from being confused together:—

Honesty of purpose in worldly affairs has many advantages over deceit; it is a safer way of dealing with men; it is an easier mode of despatching business; it inspires men with greater confidence; it acquires more and more confidence in itself, while deceit becomes more and more diffident.

(b) To give greater emphasis to different clauses, so

that the mind may dwell longer on each of them in succession :—

As Cesar loved me, I weep for him ; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it ; as he was valiant, I honour him ; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. So there is tears for his love ; joy for his fortune ; honour for his valour ; and death for his ambition.—*Shakespeare*.

(c) To divide clauses, which are connected by some Alternative or Illative conjunction. (Here a greater pause is required, because the mind requires a little more time to perceive the alternative or the inference) :—

I met him as he was leaving his house ; *otherwise* I should not have known where he lived.

I refused to do what he asked me to do ; *for* I was convinced that he had been misinformed of the facts.

The Colon.

328. The Colon may be used at the writer's discretion, if he thinks that the pause is not sufficiently marked by a semicolon. On this point no fixed rules can be given.

The main uses of the colon are the following :—

(a) To introduce an additional remark in explanation or in confirmation of a previous one :—

Strive above all things, in whatever station of life you may be, to preserve health : there is no happiness in life without it.

(b) To introduce a quotation. In this case it is usually followed by a dash :—

Then Peter stood forth and said :—“Of a truth I perceive that God is no respecter of persons,” etc.

(c) To recapitulate a series of previous clauses. Here, too, the colon must be followed by a dash :—

The storm had passed ; the sun was shining on the green leaves of the trees ; the streams were dancing around the rocks ; the birds hopped about him, as they chirped their cheerful notes :—such were the pleasant scenes and sounds that welcomed the wanderer back to his home.

(d) To introduce a series of clauses. Here, again, the colon is followed by a dash :—

You must now hear what I have to say about the uses of iron :—we sleep on iron ; we travel on iron ; we float on iron ; we plough the fields with iron ; we shoot with iron ; we chop down trees with iron ;—in fact, there is scarcely anything that we can do without the help of this wonderful metal.

(e) To introduce an example of some rule. Here, again, the colon is followed by a dash:—

The Indefinite article has sometimes the force of a Numeral adjective, signifying *one*—as, “A stitch in time saves nine.”

Insert commas, colons, or semicolons, where necessary, in the following sentences:—

1. According to Hindu notions if a sick man sneezes it is a sure sign of recovery but when a man is going on a journey or about to commence some business should any one about him sneeze the sneeze indicates that the object in which he is interested will not be accomplished.

2. In Rome the army was the nation no citizen could take office unless he had served in ten campaigns.

3. The drill was unremitting at all times so long as a man continued to be a soldier when the troops were in winter quarters sheds were erected in which the soldiers fenced with swords buttoned at the points or hurled javelins also buttoned at the points at one another.

4. The Carthaginian army was composed entirely of mercenary troops Africa Spain and Gaul were their recruiting grounds and these countries were an inexhaustible treasury of warriors as long as the money lasted which the recruits received as pay.

5. While I was still wondering at my sudden deliverance a man came suddenly forward and said my good sir there is nothing to be surprised at I was sent here to find you and rescue you from these robbers well I have succeeded in finding you and so I have accomplished what I was sent for as you now see.

6. Whenever you hesitate about beginning to do something which must be eventually done remember the maxim a thing begun is half done.

The Full Stop or Period.

329. The Full Stop or Period indicates the close of a complete sentence. The sentence following must invariably be commenced with a capital letter.

The full stop is also used after abbreviations ; as, A.D. (for Anno Domini) ; B.L. (for Bachelor of Law) ; Bart. (for Baronet) ; the Hon. (for the Honourable).

Inverted Commas.

330. Inverted Commas are used for indicating the beginning and end of a quotation, or of the actual words used by a speaker.

The councillors stood up, and with one voice exclaimed :—“Death before dishonour.”

“Wine is a mocker,” said the wise king.

Campbell was the author of the following stanza :—

“ The more we live, more brief appear
Our life's succeeding stages :
A week to childhood seems a year,
A year like passing ages.”

Note of Exclamation.

331. A Note of Exclamation is used after words or sentences which express emotion.

How are the mighty fallen in the midst of the battle !
I am distressed for thee, my brother Jonathan !
Nonsense ! How can you talk such rubbish ?
What a conceited fellow you are ! Be silent.
“ Land ahead ! ” shouted the delighted crew.

The Apostrophe.

332. The Apostrophe (‘) is inserted to show that some letter or letters have been omitted.

The Hon'ble (for Honourable) ; e'en (for even) ; 'tis (for it is) ; ta'en (for taken) ; don't (for do not) ; shan't (for shall not) ; won't (for will not) ; tho' (for though) ; an ox's head (for oxes head) ; and all other instances of the Possessive case.

Note of Interrogation.

333. A Note of Interrogation is used after sentences which ask questions. The sentence following must be commenced with a capital.

Where was he born ? When did he die ?

Insert the proper stops and capitals, where necessary, in the following sentences :—

1. What the matter Thomas ist that old pain of yours again no its net that at all said he but something a good deal better would you believe it my poor old uncle is dead and he has left me five thousand pounds that was very good of him she replied but its come too late why he inquired because she answered you are now old and broken in health what a pity it is that he did not die twenty years ago or give you the money while he was still alive.

2. I have always considered you a very sensible man said the pleader I shall take one of your oxen in return for the one that has been killed and I believe you will consider that to be just it is no more than what is right replied the farmer but what was I saying dear me I have made a blunder it was not my bull that gored your ox but your bull that gored mine so you must give me an ox in return for the one that has been killed oh thats another matter said the pleader I will inquire about the matter and if I find that what you say is correct then we must come to some equitable settlement.

Dashes.

334. The Dash has four main uses :—

(a) To mark a break or abrupt turn in a sentence :—

Here lies the great—false marble where?
Nothing but sordid dust lies here.

(b) To mark words in apposition or in explanation :—

They plucked the seated hills with all their loads—
Rocks, waters, woods—and by the shaggy tops
Uplifting bore them in their hands.

(c) To introduce a quotation, a first clause, or a final clause; but in this case it must be preceded by a colon.
(For examples, see § 328.)

(d) To insert a parenthetical phrase or sentence in the middle of a main sentence. Here *two* dashes are required.

At the age of ten—such is the power of genius—he could read Greek with facility.

Brackets.

335. Brackets are used, like a couple of dashes in (d), as just explained, for inserting a parenthetical sentence in the middle of a main sentence.

At the age of ten (such is the power of genius) he could read Greek with facility.

The Hyphen.

336. A Hyphen is used for joining the parts of a compound word; as “bathing-place.”

Note.—A hyphen, like the dash, is formed by a horizontal line. But the line is shorter.

Insert a dash, hyphen, or brackets, wherever necessary, in the following sentences, and add any other appropriate stops :—

England and Russia the two greatest empires on the face of the earth have no real cause of enmity. I could tell you all about my but perhaps you have heard enough by this time. My dog such is the power of jealousy attacked its rival whenever they met. This is very uphill work. If you read without spectacles and I believe you can be so good as to read out the contents of this letter. When I took my degree it was twelve years ago I had good prospects before me. I will never but I need not finish my sentence for you know already what I was going to say.

PART II.—IDIOM IN WORDS, PHRASES, AND CONSTRUCTIONS.

CHAPTER XIV.—NOUNS AND PRONOUNS.

337. Abstract nouns in a Concrete sense.—Abstract nouns are often used in places where a concrete sense is intended :—

He had no respect for *age* (=old or aged persons).

Substitute Concrete nouns or phrases for the Abstract ones occurring in the following sentences, rewriting any sentence in which a change of form may be required :

1. *Truth* is braver than *Falsehood*. 2. *Modest worth* often goes unnoticed and unrewarded. 3. "Take the reward," said he, "that merit would undoubtedly have earned for you, had the basest *malice* and *envy* not defrauded you of it." 4. *Industry* pays debts, while *despair* increases them. 5. *Envy* hates what *emulation* strives to equal or surpass. 6. *Idleness* squanders what *industry* in a previous generation has won. 7. As a medical man he was less honoured by the profession than by the public. 8. *Authority* seldom listens patiently to those who question it. 9. Avoid bad *company*. 10. *Youth* should make provision for the wants of *age*. 11. *Compassion* is victorious in attack and brave in defence. 12. In that mansion used to be free-hearted *Hospitality* (Longfellow). 13. *Sedition's* voice was silenced by his look. 14. *Perseverance* is sometimes more effective than *genius*. 15. Men were sent out for the conversion of *heathendom*. 16. *Youth* and *experience* seldom exist together.

17. O place me in some heaven-protected isle,
Where *peace* and *equity* and *freedom* smile ;
Where power secures what *industry* has won,
Where to succeed is not to be undone.—*Couper*.

18. All the *rank* and *fashion* were present on that occasion.

19. Let *observation* with extensive view
Survey mankind from China to Peru,
Remark each anxious *toil*, each eager *strife*,
And watch the busy scenes of crowded *life*.—*Johnson*.

338. Meanings denoted by the Possessive.—The meanings denoted by the Possessive case of nouns or pro-

nouns have been distinguished into (a) the Subjective, (i), the Objective, (c) the Descriptive :—

(a) *Subjective* :—

His income (the income owned by him) was great. (*Possession.*)
His descendants (the men descended from him) were famous. (*Origin.*)

His work (the work done by him) was excellent. (*Agency.*)
His friendship (the friendship felt by him) is sincere. (*Subject.*)

(b) *Objective* :—

His friendship (the friendship for him) must be given up. (*Object.*)

(c) *Descriptive*, applicable to nouns, not to pronouns :—

I'll knock your *knav's* (=knavish) pate.—*Shakspeare.*

The *mother's* (=motherly) nature of Althaea.—*Lovell.*

Rewrite the following sentences, so as to show more distinctly the drift of the Possessive noun or pronoun :—

1. *Shakspeare's* plays will always be admired.
2. *Vasco da Gama's* voyage round the Cape proved the ruin of Venice.
3. *Baber's* dynasty continued to reign for a long time in Hindustan.
4. *The king's* murderers were caught and punished.
5. He checked the spread of *Pompey's* revolt.
6. *Solomon's* temple was situated in Jerusalem.
7. My *friend's* praises are heard on all sides.
8. No one will listen to *that man's* excuses.
9. A *stunner's* recompense is sorrow.
10. *Plato's* philosophy has had less influence in the world than *Aristotle's*.
11. *Nana Sahib's* treachery was soon brought to light.
12. A *miser's* promises cannot be trusted.
13. *Nelson's* victories at sea destroyed the French navy.
14. *Juck Jade's* rebellion led to no result.
15. I beg of you to pardon my *son's* faults.
16. *England's* power is very extensive.
17. The *court's* decree is that he shall be hanged.
18. The *king's* messenger will soon arrive.
19. *Homer's* poems will always be admired.
20. The young *scamp* soon squandered away his *uncle's* legacy.
21. He has no regret for his *father's* sorrows.
22. A good son will seek to repay his *father's* benefits.
23. Lord Elgin was *Lord Canning's* successor.
24. The guns were fired at the *general's* word.
25. The *speaker's* remarks were not just.
26. The *enemy's* ravages will soon be replaced.
27. My *son's* letters do him much credit.
28. A *philosopher's* knowledge is not always of a useful nature.
29. A *mother's* blessing be on thee!

339. Possessive of Interest.—The Possessive case of Personal pronouns is sometimes used familiarly in the sense of interest.

When he entered the room, on seeing a servant coming towards him to order him out, up goes *my* grave impudence (=the grave-faced impudent fellow whom I was watching) to the maid, etc.—*Tailler*.

My Athenians (=the Athenians of whom I have made a special study) were certainly not bigoted.—*Grote*.

Our hero (=the man in whom my readers and myself have taken so much interest) now decided on returning home.—*Marryat*.

“You must understand,” says the knight, “there is nothing that pleases a man in love so much as *your* nightingale” (=the nightingale that you and I are so fond of listening to).—*Spectator*.

Note.—We do not find that the Possessive of Interest is used with pronouns of the Third person, “he,” “she,” or “it,” but only with pronouns of the First and Second persons.

340. Dative or Objective of Interest.—A Personal pronoun can be put in the Objective case after a Transitive verb, to denote the interest taken by the speaker or spectator in the action expressed by the verb:—

- (a) Convey *me* Salisbury into his tent.—*Shakspeare*.
- (b) Solomon built *him* a house.—*New Test.*
- (c) The Jew ate *me* a whole ham of bacon.—*Addison*.
- (d) “Archers,” he called to the warders in the outward battlements, “send *me* an arrow through yon monk’s frock.”—*Scott’s Ivanhoe*.

These sentences could all be rewritten as follows:—

- (a) I request or order you to convey Salisbury into his tent.
- (b) Solomon built a house for him (the Most High).
- (c) To my astonishment the Jew ate a whole ham of bacon.
- (d) Archers, I order you to send an arrow through yon monk’s frock.

Note 1.—This use of Personal pronouns is generally called the Dative of Interest, because in Old English the pronoun was in the (now obsolete) Dative case. Since modern English has no such case, but recognises only three cases,—the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective,—it is equally or more appropriate to call this the Objective of Interest.

Note 2.—What in § 155 is called “the Reflexive object” to Intransitive verbs, as in “fare *thee* well,” is in fact another example of the so-called Dative of Interest. It has been termed the Reflexive object, because the agent is himself the object affected by the action of the verb. “Fare *thee* well” means “fare well *for thyself*.” The pronoun “thee” is thus a kind of *Indirect* object to the verb “fare.” It is only Transitive verbs that are followed by a *Direct* object.

341a. **Personal Possessives.**—In Old English *mine*, *thine*, *our*, and *your* had two distinct functions: (1) as independent pronouns, where we now have to say *of me*, *of thee*, *of you*, *of us*; (2) as adjectives, declined in Old English like other adjectives, so as to be in the same number, gender, and case as the nouns following.

In Modern English, function (1) has become obsolete; but some traces of it still occur in such constructions as the following:—

(1) Poor is *our* sacrifice, whose eyes
Are lighted from above.—*Newman*.

Here *our* = of us, and *us* is the antecedent of *whose*.

(2) I took *her* leave (=leave of her) at Court.—*Shakspeare*.

(3) Tell her 'tis *all our ways* (the ways of all of us); it runs in
the family.—*Sheridan*.

The common phrase *in my despite* = in spite of me.

341b. **“Ye” supplanted by “you.”**—In Old English and in the English Bible *ye* is a Nominative, and *you* is an Objective.

Ye have not chosen me, but I have chosen *you*.—*John xv. 16*.

But prior to the date of the first Authorised version some confusion had already been springing up in profane literature. Hence in the Elizabethan dramatists and later, when our language was still in some respects unsettled, we find *ye* and *you* used indiscriminately:—

I do beseech *ye*, if *you* bear me hard.—*Shakspeare*.

His wrath which one day will destroy *ye* both.—*Milton*.

Note.—*Ye* took the place of *you* in such examples as the above, because the unaccented *you* was pronounced as *y'*,—a sound very unlike that of *you*. It was written as *ye*, because this spelling, though far from suitable, made a nearer approach to the sound of *y'* than *you* did.

341c. **“Thou” and “thee” supplanted by “you.”**—In the fourteenth century, and throughout the Tudor period, *you* was the more formal, distant, and respectful mode of address, and *thou* the more familiar, such as a father could use to a son, but not a son to a father:—

(1) *Grat.* I have a suit to *you*.

Bass. *You* have obtained it.

Grat. *You* must not deny me. I must go with *you* to Belmont.

Bass. Why, then *you* must. But hear *thee*, *Gratiano*;

Thee art too wild, too rude, and bold of voice.

—*Merchant of Venice*, ii. 2, 187-190.

So long as the two friends are talking to each other in a formal way on a matter of business, they adopt the respectful and more distant *you*. But as soon as the one begins to address the other in a more confidential and intimate tone, he at once uses the more familiar *thee* and *thou*. (N.B. "Thee" is here the Dative of Interest, § 340.)

(2) All that Lord Cobham did was at *thy* instigation, *thou* viper !
for I *thou* thee, *thou* traitor.

This language was used at Sir Walter Raleigh's trial (A.D. 1603), when Coke, finding that argument and evidence were wanting, insulted the illustrious prisoner by applying to him the familiar "*thou*."

341d. "Which" supplanted by "who."—Originally *who* was an Interrogative only, not a Relative. In the sixteenth century it began to be used as a Relative, whenever the antecedent stood for some *person*. Prior to this date *which* was used.

Our Father, *which* art in heaven.—*New Testament.*

Then Warwick disannuls great John of Gaunt,
Which did subdue the greatest part of Spain.—*Shakspeare.*

CHAPTER XV.—ADJECTIVES.

§ 1.—USES OF THE VARIOUS KINDS OF ADJECTIVES.

Quantitative.

342. *Some, any.*—There is much difference in the way in which the two adjectives are used:—

(a) *Some* is used in *affirmative* sentences; as—

"He has procured *some* bread." We cannot say, "He has procured *any* bread."

(b) *Any* is used in *negative* sentences; as—

"He has *not* procured *any* bread." We cannot say, "He has *not* procured *some* bread."

But although "any" is used in negative sentences like the above, we must never say "no *any*," as is occasionally done by some students. Thus we must not say, "He has procured *no any* bread"; but we must say, "He has *not* procured *any* bread," or "He has procured *no* bread."

(c) *Any* and *some* can both be used in *interrogative* sentences:—

Has he procured *any* bread?

Has he procured *some* bread?

But in such sentences "any" is more commonly used than "some," and is to be preferred to it.

343. *Little, a little, the little.*—Each of these expressions has a distinct meaning of its own:—

(a) **Little** is a *negative* adjective, and means "not much."
He had *little* money = (not much money).

(b) **A little** is an *affirmative* adjective, and means "some at least":—a certain quantity, however little.

He had *a little* money = (some money at least, although the amount was small).

(c) **The little** implies two statements—one *negative*, and the other *affirmative*.

He spent the *little* money he had.

That is—(1) The money he had was not much. (*Negative.*)
(2) He spent all the money that he had. (*Affirmative.*)

Numeral Adjectives.

344. **Few, a few, the few.**—Each of these expressions has a distinct meaning of its own:—

(a) **Few** is a *Negative* adjective, and signifies "not many."

He read *few* books (he did *not* read *many* books).

(b) **A few** is an *Affirmative* adjective, and signifies "some at least":—a certain number, however few.

He read *a few* books (that is, he read *some* books *at least*, though the number was small).

(c) **The few** implies two statements, *one Negative* and *the other Affirmative*.

He read the *few* books he had.

That is—(1) The books he had were not many. (*Negative.*)
(2) He read all the books he had. (*Affirmative.*)

345. **Many a, a many.**—The former phrase is followed by *Singular nouns*, and the latter by *Plural ones*:—

(a) **Many a.**—Here "a" = "one"; "many a man" means "many times one man," or "many men." Hence "many" has here the force of a *Multiplicative numeral*:

Many a youth and *many a* maid
Dancing 'neath the greenwood shade.—*Milton.*

(b) **A many.**—Here "many" has the force of a *Collective noun*, and *of* is understood after it:—

They have not shed *a many* tears,
Dear eyes, since first I knew them well.—*Tennyson.*
This many summers on a sea of glory.—*Shakspeare.*

In prose it is more common to put in the word "great" between *a* and *many*. "A great many men" means "a large number of men," the *of* being understood, and *many* having the force of a Collective noun. Similarly in such a phrase as "a few books," we might regard *a few* as a Collective noun, the "of" being understood after it.

N.B.—In Old English "menigu" was a Collective *Noun*, signifying "a multitude or large number," and "manig" was an Indefinite Numerical *Adjective*, signifying "many." In modern English the same word "many" stands for both; for it is equivalent to "menigu" in the phrase *a many*, and to "manig" in the phrase *many a* or simply *many*. Shakspeare has "a many of our bodies."

346. Definite Numeral Quantities are sometimes Collective nouns; and, as in the case of "many," the *of* is understood after them.

A dozen (of) sheep ; a million (of) apples.

A hundred (of) years ; a thousand (of) years.

A hundred-thousand (of) rupees. (But we must say "a lac of rupees," and not "a lac rupees.)

Demonstrative Adjectives.

347. Definite Demonstratives.—The uses of these adjectives are shown below:—

(a) **This, these.**—Something *near at hand* is pointed to by these adjectives; as—

This tree ; these trees.

They are sometimes used in the sense of possession by way of emphasis; as—

These eyes (=my own eyes) saw the deed.

(b) **That, those, yon, yonder.**—These adjectives point to something *further off*; as—

That tree ; those trees ; yon or yonder tree (or trees).

Note.—"Yon or yonder" is seldom seen except in poetry. They can be used with nouns of either number.

(c) **Such.**—This adjective means *of this or that kind*, and refers either (1) to something just mentioned, or (2) to something just going to be mentioned:—

(1) His praise of me was not sincere : I do not like *such a man* (or *such men*).

(2) *Such food* as we get here does not suit me.

"Such" is also used as an *Indefinite Demonstrative*. In this case it does not refer to anything previously mentioned.

He called at my house on *such a day* (=some day or other), and I gave *such and such* an answer (some answer or other) to his questions.

Note.—“So,” the adverbial form of “such,” is similarly used in an Indefinite sense.

A week or so (that is, a week more or less).

(d) **The same, self-same, very same.**—These adjectives all refer to something previously mentioned. “Self-same” and “very same” are more emphatic than “same.”

You told him to come here to-morrow; and I gave him *the same* (or *the self-same*, or *the very same*) answer.

(e) **The other.**—This denotes the *second* of two things previously mentioned, while “*the one*” denotes the first:—

Two women shall be grinding at the mill; *the one* shall be taken, and *the other* left.—*New Testament*.

“**The other day.**”—This peculiar phrase has an *Indefinite* sense, and means *any day* (*some day or other*) recently preceding and therefore distinct from the present:—

He came to see me *the other day* (=a few days ago, some day or other which I cannot exactly remember).

348. The Definite Demonstratives are very frequently used to point out the noun, which stands as antecedent to some relative pronoun following:—

This man whom you now see came here to-day.

That book which you are reading is mine.

He is not *such a clever student as* you are.

You are reading *the same book that* I read many years ago.

349. The Indefinite Demonstratives are used as follows:—

(a) **A, an, a certain.**—These are used with singular nouns, to show that no person or thing in particular is intended or specified; as, “a man,” “a certain man,” “an apple.” *Certain* is used with Plural nouns in the same sense; as, “certain men.”

(b) **One.**—This word is generally a Numeral adjective; but it may also be used as an Indefinite Demonstrative in such sentences as the following:—

He came *one day* (on a certain day which I cannot remember) to see me.

One Mr. James (a certain man whom I do not know, but who is called Mr. James) came to see me.

(c) **Any.**—This is more emphatic than “a” or “an”; it can be used with Plural as well as Singular nouns:—

Any man (that is, any and *every* man) could do that.
You may take *any* books (no books in particular, but *any* books) that you like best.

(d) *Some*.—This is used in two senses—(1) as showing that no person or thing in particular is specified; (2) for making a Definite number Indefinite (see § 95).

(1) *Some* man (I do not know who he was) called here to-day.
(2) He owes me *some* 20 rupees (*about* 20 rupees, *more or less*).

(e) *Another, any other, other*.—“*Another*” (with Singular nouns) and “*other*” (with Plural ones) are used in *affirmative* statements; but “*any other*” (with nouns in either number) is used in *negative* ones; as—

We have seen *another* man (or *other* men) to-day.
We have *not* seen *any other* man or men to-day.

“*Other*” is sometimes followed by “*than*,” and in this case it should be placed immediately before it, or as close to it as possible:—

He has no books *other than* Sanskrit.

This is better than saying, “he has no other books than Sanskrit.” Here “*other than*” means “*different from*” or “*except*.” “*He has no books except Sanskrit*.” “*Than*” is here a preposition.

350. *Some, any*.—It depends upon the sense whether these are *Demonstrative Adjectives*, or *Adjectives of Quantity*, or *Adjectives of Number*.

Some	(1) <i>Some</i> man called here to-day . . .	<i>Indef. Demons.</i>
	(2) Give me <i>some</i> bread	“ <i>Quant.</i>
	(3) Give me <i>some</i> loaves of bread . . .	“ <i>Number.</i>
Any	(1) Take <i>any</i> book that you like best . . .	“ <i>Demons.</i>
	(2) He has not had <i>any</i> bread	“ <i>Quant.</i>
	(3) Did you bring <i>any</i> loaves?	“ <i>Number.</i>

Both of these adjectives are Indefinite; but, as may be seen from the following examples, “*some*” is the least Indefinite of the two:—

Did *any* man call here to-day? Yes; *some* man did call.

Take *any* books that you like; but you must take *some*.

Can you come at *some* hour to-day? Yes, at *any* hour you like.

Distributive Adjectives and Phrases.

351. *Each other, one another*.—In these phrases we have a Distributive adjective (*each = one*) combined with an Indefinite Demonstrative adjective (*other* or *another*):—

(a) "Each other" is used when *two* persons or things are concerned ; as—

The two men struck *each other* (that is, *each* man struck the *other* man).

(b) "One another" is used when *more than two* persons or things are concerned ; as—

They all loved *one another* (that is, each man loved every other man).

352. The drift of a Distributive adjective can also be expressed in the following ways :—

(a) By the preposition "by" :—

They went out *two by two*, or *by twos* (in separate pairs).

(b) By "and," in such phrases as "two and two," "three and three" :—

They went out *two and two* (in separate pairs).

(c) By the phrase "at a time" :—

They went out *two at a time* (in separate pairs).

(d) By the phrase "a piece" :—

The twenty men had a gun *a piece* (had each a gun).

(e) By the adjective "respective" :—

They went to their *respective* homes (each to his own).

Correct any errors that you may find in any of the Adjectives occurring below :—

- I have not had some breakfast this morning.
- Little money is better than none.
- The three partners in that firm disliked each other.
- Bring me any water to drink.
- I have no any books to read.
- Can you bring me few?
- He was sorry to find that he had a little leisure left.
- Few remarks from you on that subject will not be out of place.
- I wish you would stay here a few days longer.
- Did any man call here to-day?
- Yes, any man called at four o'clock.
- The mother and son were deeply attached to one another.
- Of the two prisoners that were detained in jail every one has escaped.
- He has finished reading a few books that he had.
- Budapest is a Hungarian city.
- A clock is an useful piece of furniture.
- It is a common, but unjust, belief that an one-eyed man must be cunning.
- The old man, addressing his four sons for the last time, said he hoped they would always stand by each other and abstain from quarrelling.

§ 2.—ON THE IDIOMATIC USES OF ARTICLES.

353. As a general rule, a *Common* noun in the *Singular* number should have an article placed before it. Thus we should not say, "I saw *dog*"; but "I saw *a* dog or *the* dog."

(a) If we wish to *particularise* the noun, we use the *Definite article* :—

Let us go and bathe in *the* river (that is, the river near our house, or the river where we usually bathe).

This settles *the* matter (that is, the matter in which we are engaged). They struck him in *the* face (that is, in his own face).

(b) If we wish to *generalise* the noun, we use the *Indefinite article* :—

A tiger is a fierce animal (that is, any tiger ; or tigers generally).

A cat is not so faithful as *a* dog.

Note.—Since "*a*" is a contraction of "*one*" (§ 15), it is sometimes used in the sense of "*one*."

A stitch (=one stitch) in time saves nine.

Two of *a* trade (=of the same trade) should live apart.

354. When a *Common noun* is used in the *Plural* number, the *Definite article* should not be placed before it, unless we wish to *particularise* the noun.

Storks gobble up *frogs*.

But if we are talking about some particular storks and some particular frogs, that might be in some pool of water close at hand, we should say—

Look ! *the* storks are gobbling up *the* frogs.

355. An article is not placed before a *Proper*, *Material*, or *Abstract noun*, except when any of these is used as a *Common noun* (§ 46).

He is *the* *Nestor* (=the oldest man) of the service.

Sugar-cane is *one of the grasses* (=kinds of grass).

He is *a* *justice* of the peace.

356. "*The*" is sometimes used to indicate a *class* or *kind* of anything. One individual is thus made to represent the entire class. The following all mean the same thing :—

The lion is a noble beast.

A lion is a noble beast.

Lions are noble beasts.

357. When "*the*" is placed before a *Common noun*, it sometimes gives it the meaning of an *Abstract noun*.

He felt *the* *patriot* (the patriotic spirit or feeling) rise within his breast.

He acted *the* *lord* (the lordly or overbearing character) wherever he went.

He allowed *the* *father* (his fatherly feelings) to be overruled by *the* *judge* (his sense of duty as a judge), and declared his own son to be guilty.

358. As a general rule a Proper noun should not have "*the*" placed before it. But the following are exceptions :—

- (a) Names of rivers ; as, *the Ganges*, *the Indus*, *the Nerbudda*, *the Rhine*, *the Danube*.
- (b) Names of groups of islands ; as, *the Andaman Islands*, *the East Indies*, *the Hebrides*. (But *individual* islands do not have "*the*" placed before them ; as, *Ceylon*, *Ireland*, *Sicily*.)
- (c) Names of ranges of mountains ; as, *the Himalayas*, *the Vindhya*s, *the Alps*. (But *individual* mountains do not have "*the*" placed before them ; as, *Mount Abu*, *Mount Everest*, *Parasnath*.)
- (d) Names of straits, gulfs, seas, and oceans ; as, *the Palk Straits* ; *the Straits of Babelmandeb* ; *the Gulf of Cambay* ; *the Persian Gulf* ; *the Bay of Bengal* ; *the Arabian Sea* ; *the Mediterranean Sea* ; *the Indian Ocean* ; *the Atlantic Ocean*.
- (e) The name of a province is very seldom preceded by "*the*" ; as, *Bengal*, *Behar*, *Orissa*, *Assam*, *Oudh*, etc. In India the only exception is "*the Punjab*."
- (f) The article is usually placed before the proper names of books ; as, *the Bible* ; *the Ramayan*. But if a book is called after its author, the article is not used ; as, "*I have read Shakespeare*."

Note.—"*The*" is not placed before the names of towns (as *London*, *Calcutta*) ; nor before the names of capes (as *Cape Comorin*, *Cape Horn*) ; nor before the names of countries (as *England*, *India*) ; nor before the names of continents (as *Asia*, *Europe*) ; nor before the names of *single* islands (as *Ceylon*, *Sicily*) ; nor before the names of *single* mountains (as *Mount Abu*, *Parasnath*, *Everest*) ; nor before the names of lakes (as *Lake Sambhar*, *Lake Chilka*, *Lake Huron*).

359. Omission of Article.—As a general rule a Common noun in the Singular number should have some article placed before it (see § 353).

But the following exceptions should be noted :—

(a) Names of titles or professions, when they precede a Proper noun :—

Queen Victoria ; *King George I.* ; *Lord Ashley* ; *Saint Paul* ; *Judge Anson* ; *General Roberts* ; *Father Ignatius* ; *Victoria*, *Queen of England* ; *George I.*, *King of England*.

(b) In certain well-established phrases, consisting of a Transitive verb followed by its Object, the Common noun which follows the verb is used without any distinction of article or number :—

The trees struck root (not *the roots*) into the ground.

The boys leave school (not *the school*) at four o'clock.

Students must give ear (not *the ears*) to what the teacher tells them.

He sent word that he would come soon.

You cannot set foot in this house.

He shook *hands* with his old friends.

We will keep *house* in this village.

The king resolved to give *battle* to his enemies.

The sailors cast *anchor* for the night, and set *sail* again next day.

The pile of logs has taken *fire*, or caught *fire*.

He took *breath*, when he rose up out of the water.

To keep *house*. To follow *suit*. To do *penance*.

(c) In phrases consisting of a Preposition followed by its Object, the article is omitted before the Common noun, when such phrases are intended to be used *for all persons and on all occasions alike* :—

Some came by *land*, and some by *water*.

It would be better to go on *foot* than on *horseback*.

He is out at *sea*, on *board ship*.

A rat is quite at *home*, when it is under *ground*.

Men who are in *jail* are sometimes made to work out of *doors*.

He is a scholar by *name*, but not in *fact*.

He fell sick at *school*, and is now in *bed*.

Those who work hard by *day* must not work by *night* also.

He is over *head* and *ears* in *debt*, or in *trouble*, etc.

He begins work at *daybreak* and leaves off at *sunset*.

Such food is not fit for *man or beast*.

Speak the truth in *court*, whether you have been at *fault* or not.

We shall never get this for *love*, but you might for *money*.

The ship is riding at *anchor*, and the sailors are now at *ease*.

This will be paid at *sight* or on *demand*.

I met your old friend at *dinner* to-day.

He lends out money at *interest*; for he has much cash in *hand*.

There is nothing on *earth* so pure as sea-air.

Note.—On the use of “*the*” before adjectives in the Positive degree, see § 366; before adjectives in the Comparative degree, see § 370, *Note 2*; and before adjectives in the Superlative degree, see § 371, *Note 1*.

Rewrite the following sentences, inserting any Articles that may be required, or removing any that are not required :—

1. I saw dog coming toward me.
2. The men are rational beings.
3. You should use a well-seasoned timber in building a house.
4. I am fond of strolling in wood in cool of the evening.
5. The envy is an evil passion.
6. He gave very wise judgment.
7. He is Daniel in wisdom.
8. He ordered servant to leave room.
9. We cannot easily live without the houses.
10. The honey is made by bees, and they extract it from the flowers.
11. Fire broke out in our village.
12. He always practised the justice.
13. He was justice of the peace in Calcutta.
14. He understands grammar taught in this book.
15. Your son, I fear, is not genius.
16. Ganges has overflowed its banks.
17. The Mount Everest is highest in the world.
18. He wrote very good letter.
19. Language consists of the words.
20. Some men never eat a flesh.
21. India is large peninsula.
22. Andamans are

23. Height of a man seldom exceeds six feet.
 24. Oil is produced from the olives.
 25. Dead man tells no tales.
 26. Your daughter is quite beauty.
 27. The speech is one of our greatest faculties.
 28. Bay of Bengal separates India from the Burma.
 29. The Ceylon is beautiful island ; and it is largest of all the islands near India.
 30. He was found asleep in thick of forest.
 31. He acted lord in that play.
 32. He received a serious blow in small of his back.
 33. The Mount Abu is in Rajputana.
 34. He was very fond of roaming in wilds of Scotland.
 35. He restored sight to blind.
 36. Live ass is better than dead lion.
 37. You will never be Newton in astronomy.

§ 3.—ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS.

360. An adjective can be used for a noun for the sake of shortness. The noun in this case is sometimes understood, and sometimes altogether cancelled.

361. The Noun is cancelled, and the change from Adjective to Noun is complete, when the word can be used in the Plural number or in the Possessive case. Such a change is complete, because no Adjectives take the Possessive case-ending, and none but "this" and "that" have a distinct form for the Plural number.

Nobles = noble men or noblemen.

A noble's house = a nobleman's house.

I have told you many secrets = secret things.

362. In using a Proper adjective to denote some language, no article is placed before it, and no noun is expressed.

He speaks *English*, but not *Hindi*.

The grammar of *English* is simpler than that of *Persian*.

363. Some adjectives are used as nouns in the Singular only, some in the Plural only, and some in both :—

(a) *Singular only* :—

Our all. The whole. Our best. Our worst. Much (as, Much has been done). More (as, More has been done). Little (as, Little has been done). Less (as, Less has been done).

(b) *Plural only* :—

Opposites. Morals. Contraries. Particulars (=details). Movables. Eatables. Drinkables. Valuables. Greens (=green vegetables). Sweets and bitters (=the sweet and bitter contingencies of life). Our betters (=men better than ourselves). Our equals. The ancients. The moderns. The Commons. The actuals.

(c) *Singular and Plural* :—

A secret; secrets. A liquid; liquids. A solid; solids. A total; totals. A capital; capitals. An elder; elders. A senior; seniors. A junior; juniors. A native; natives. A mortal; mortals. An inferior; inferiors. A superior; superiors. A criminal; criminals.

364. Participles (which, in fact, are Verbal adjectives, see § 18) are sometimes used as Nouns in the Plural number, in the same way as ordinary adjectives are.

He came here with all his *belongings* (=with all things belonging to him, all his goods and chattels).

Let *bygones* be *bygones* (=let past offences be forgotten).

365. There are certain colloquial or idiomatic phrases in which adjectives go in pairs, some noun being understood after them :—

From bad to worse. “He is going from bad to worse” (from a bad state to a worse one).

The long and short. “The long and short (the sum and substance) of the matter is,” etc.

In black and white. “Let me see it in black and white” (written with black ink on white paper).

Through thick and thin. “He makes his way through thick and thin” (through thick or difficult obstacles and through thin or easy ones).

From first to last = from the beginning to the end.

At sixes and sevens = in a state of disorder. “The men of the house were all at sixes and sevens” (in a state of discord). “Everything in the city is at sixes and sevens” (in a state of confusion).

High and low. “He searched for his property high and low” (in high places and low ones, everywhere, up and down).

Right or wrong. “I intend to do this, right or wrong” (whether the act is right or not).

For better, for worse. “She married you for better, for worse” (for any good or evil that may fall to your lot hereafter).

Fast and loose. “He plays fast and loose” (with a tight or loose hold, as he may prefer; that is, at random, recklessly).

Black and blue. “He beat them black and blue” (so as to bring out black and blue marks on the skin).

Right and left. “He struck out right and left” (to this side and that side).

Slow and steady. “Slow and steady (patient and steady progress) wins the race.”

For good, for good and all (=finally, permanently; for all future consequences, good or evil).

366. Adjectives preceded by “the.”—When an adjective is preceded by the Definite article, it can be used as a Noun in the three senses shown below :—

(1) As a Common noun denoting *Persons* only, and usually in a *Plural* sense:—

None but the brave (=those men who are brave) deserves the fair.
To the pure (=those persons who are pure) all things are pure.

The blind receive their sight; *the lame* walk; *the dumb* speak; *the dead* are raised up; to *the poor* the gospel is preached.—*New Testament*.

(2) As an Abstract noun (*Singular*):—

The good = that quality which is good, =goodness in general.

The beautiful = that quality which is beautiful, =beauty in general.
 All the motions of his nature were towards *the true*, *the natural*,
the sweet, *the gentle*.—*De Quincey*.

(3) As a name for some particular part of a thing:—

The white (=the white part) of the eye.

The vitals (=the most vital parts) of the body.

The thick (=the thickest parts) of the forest.

The wilds (=the wild parts) of a country.

The interior (=the inside part) of a house.

The exteriors (=the outside parts) of a house.

The middle (=the middle part) of a river.

The small (=the smallest part) of the back.

367. In poetry, adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, without having an article placed before them:—

Fair is foul, and *foul* is fair.—*Shakspeare*.

O'er rough and smooth she trips along.—*Wordsworth*.

From grave to *gay*, from *lively* to *severe*.—*Pope*.

368. There are several adverbial phrases, made up of a preposition and an adjective, in which some noun is understood after the adjective:—

Extent.—On the whole, in the main, in general, in particular, at the full or in full, at all, not at all, at most, at large, in short, a little.

Time.—At last, at the latest, at first, at the first, to the last, at present, for the present, in the past, in future, for the future, once for all, before long, for long.

Place.—On the right (hand), on the left (hand), on high, in the open (air).

Manner.—In the right (on the true or right side of the question), in the wrong (on the wrong side of the question), in the dark, in common, on the loose.

State.—At best, for the best, at worst, on the alert.

§ 4.—USES OF DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

369. **Positive Degree.**—When two persons or things are said to be *equal* in respect of some quality, we use

the *Positive* degree with *as . . . as*; or we can use the *Comparative* degree with "not":—

This boy is *as clever as* that.

This boy is *no less clever than* that.

That boy is *not more clever than* this.

370. Comparative Degree.—When two persons or things are said to be *unequal* in respect of some quality, we use the *Comparative* degree:—

(a) This boy is *more clever* or *cleverer than* that.

(b) This boy is *the cleverer of the two*.

Note 1.—Forms (a) and (b) do not mean entirely the same thing. Form (a) merely denotes *superiority*. Form (b) denotes the *selection of the one in preference to the other*.

Note 2.—Observe that whenever the Comparative degree is used in the (b), or *selective* sense, it must be preceded by the Definite article, as might be expected; for the proper function of this article is to particularise or select, see § 353 (a).

371. Superlative Degree.—When one person or thing is said to surpass all other persons or things of the same kind, we use the *Superlative* degree with *the . . . of*.

This boy is *the cleverest of all*.

Note 1.—Observe that the Superlative degree must always (except in the instances shown in *Note 2*) be preceded by the Definite article.

Note 2.—When the Superlative is (a) preceded by a Possessive pronoun, or (b) is used to qualify some noun in the Nominative of address, it is not preceded by the Definite article:—

(a) He is *my greatest friend*, or at least one of *my greatest friends*.
(b) O *dearest* one, when shall we see you again?

Note 3.—The Superlative degree must not be used as if it were equivalent to the Positive degree preceded by "very":—

Erroneous.

He wrote *a best book*.
He is *a worst scholar*.

He wrote *a very good book*.
He is *a very bad scholar*.

Corrected.

The only kind of exception to this rule is that given under (b) in *Note 2*. Here "O dearest one" is equivalent to "O very dear one."

Note 4.—But the Superlative degree may itself be preceded by "very," where "very" is not an adverb, but an adjective signifying "real" or "actual":—

He is *the very best* (=the actual best) student in this class.

372. Comparatives which have lost their force:—

(a) *Latin Comparatives*:—*interior, exterior, ulterior, major*,

minor. These are now never followed by *to*, but are used as if they were adjectives in the Positive degree :—

A fact of *minor* (secondary) importance.

He had an *ulterior* (further) purpose in doing this.

The *interior* (inside) parts of a building.

Some can be used as nouns :—

He is a *minor* (a person under age).

He is a *major* (in the military rank).

The *interior* of the room was well furnished.

(b) English Comparatives :—*former, latter, elder, kinder, inner, outer, upper, neither*. These are now never followed by *than* :—

The *former* and the *latter* rain.—*Old Testament*.

The *inner* meaning ; the *outer* surface.

The *upper* and the *nether* mill-stones.

The words *elder* and *elders* can also be used as nouns, to denote some person or persons of dignified rank or age ; as, “the village elders.”

373. Distinctions of Meaning.—The student should note the differences between (a) *eldest* and *oldest* ; (b) *farther* and *further* ; (c) *latter* and *latter* ; (d) *nearest* and *next*.

(a) { My *eldest* son died at the age of twelve.
He is the *oldest* of my surviving sons.

Here “*eldest*” means first-born, and is applied only to *persons*. “*Oldest*” is applied to things as well as to persons, and denotes the greatest age. “That is the *oldest* tree in the grove.”

(b) { Benares is *farther* from Calcutta than Patna is.
The *further* end of the room. A *further* reason exists.

The word “*farther*” (comparative of “*far*”) denotes a greater distance between two points. The word “*further*” (comparative of “*fore*”) denotes something additional or something more in advance.

(c) { This is the *latest* news.
This is the *last* boy in the class.

The words “*later*” and “*latest*” denote time ; the words “*latter*” and “*last*” denote position.

(d) { This street is the *nearest* to my house.
This house is *next* to mine.

The word “*nearest*” denotes space or distance ; (“this street is at a less distance from my house than any other street”). But “*next*” denotes order or position ; (“no other house stands between this house and mine”).

CHAPTER XVI.—VERBS.

§ I.—USES OF TENSES.

374. The Present Indefinite can be used to denote the following:—

(a) What is always and necessarily true:—

The sun *shines* by day and the moon by night.

Things equal to the same thing *are* equal to one another.

(b) What is permanent or habitual in life or character:—

He *keeps* his promises. He *has* good health.

(c) What is present, provided that present time is implied by the context:—

I *understand* what you *say*.

The door *is* open: **no one** has shut it.

(d) What is future, provided that future time is implied by the context:—

He *comes* (=will come) in a few days' time.

When *do* you (=will you) start for Madras?

(e) What is past, provided that the event expressed by the verb is known to be past. (This is called the Historic or Graphic present.)

Baber *now leads* (=then led) his men through the Kyber pass, and *enters* (=entered) the plains of India.

375. The Past Indefinite.—The special use of this tense is to state something *that was true once*, but is now past and gone. *It excludes absolutely all reference to present time.*

Baber *founded* the Mogul Empire in India.

Vasco da Gama *was* the first man from Europe who *rounded* the Cape of Good Hope.

376. The Present Perfect.—The peculiar purport of this tense is that it invariably connects a *completed* event in some sense or other with *the present time*.

I *have lived* twenty years in Lucknow (that is, *I am living there still*, and I began to live there twenty years ago).

The lamp *has gone out* (that is, it has just gone out, and we are now *left* in darkness).

(a) The Present Perfect can be used in reference to

a past event, provided the state of things arising out of that event is *still present*.

The British Empire *has succeeded* to the Mogul.

The series of events by which the British Empire superseded the Mogul took place more than a century ago. The events are therefore long past. Yet it is quite correct to use the Present Perfect tense "*has succeeded*," because the state of things arising out of these past events is *still present*: the British Empire *still exists*, and pertains to *present time* no less than to past time.

But such a sentence as the following is wrong:—

Baber *has founded* the Mogul Empire.

This is wrong, because the state of things arising out of the foundation of the empire by Baber has entirely passed away.

(b) The Present Perfect, since it denotes *present time*, cannot be qualified by any adverb or phrase denoting *past time*. This would be a contradiction in terms.

Incorrect.

The rain *has ceased* yesterday.

I *have finished* my letter last evening.

The parrot *has died* of cold last night.

Correct.

The rain *ceased* yesterday.

I *finished* my letter last evening.

The parrot *died* of cold last night.

But such sentences as the following are correct, because the adverb or phrase used in each of them is of such a kind as to *connect past time with the present*; hence no contradiction occurs.

The English Empire *has been flourishing* for the past 150 years (that is, it began to flourish 150 years ago, and is still flourishing).

Fever *has raged* in the town since Monday last (that is, fever began to rage on Monday last, and is raging still).

377. The Past Perfect (also called the Pluperfect).— This is used whenever we wish to say that *some action had been completed before another was commenced*.

The verb expressing the *previous action* is put into the Past Perfect or Pluperfect tense. The verb expressing the *subsequent action* is put into the Past Indefinite.

(a) *Previous Action.*

Past Perfect.

He *had been ill* two days, when the doctor *was sent for*.
He *had seen* many foreign cities, before he *returned* home.

Subsequent Action.

Past Indefinite.

(b) *Subsequent Action.*

Past Indefinite.

The boat *was sunk* by a hurricane, which *had* suddenly sprung up.
The sheep *fled* in great haste; for a wolf *had entered* the fold.

Previous Action.

Past Perfect.

The Past Perfect ought never to be used at all *except to show the priority of one past event to another*.

Yet Indian students and clerks are apt to use the Past Perfect when

no priority of any kind is implied, and when they ought to use the Past Indefinite. Here is a specimen of an official letter :—

"I beg to inform you that the trustees to the _____ endowment, at the meeting convened on 19th July 1891, *had* unanimously resolved to reserve the option of appointing or dismissing the men employed."

Here the event referred to should have been expressed in the *Past Indefinite*. The use of the Past Perfect is wrong in this place, because there is no priority of one event to another.

378. The Future Perfect.—This tense is used in two different senses :—(a) To denote the completion of some event in *future* time ; (b) to denote the completion of some event in *past* time.¹

- (a) He *will have* reached home before the rain sets in. (The reaching of home will be completed before the setting in of rain commences.)
- (b) You *will have* heard (must have heard in some past time) this news already ; so I need not repeat it.

379. Shall and will in Interrogative sentences :—

In Assertive sentences, *merely future time* is denoted by "shall" in the First person, and by "will" in the Second and Third ; a *command* is denoted by "shall" in the Second and Third persons ; an *intention* is denoted by "will" in the First person (see § 178).

In Interrogative sentences, however, the change of situation from asserting a fact to asking a question modifies to some extent the uses of "shall" and "will." All possible meanings of "shall" and "will," when they are used interrogatively, are shown in the following examples :—

Shall I.	(a) <i>Shall I</i> be sixteen years old to-morrow ? (Here the "shall" merely inquires after something future.)
	(b) <i>Shall I</i> post that letter for you ? (Here the "shall" inquires about a command. Do you command or desire me to post that letter for you ?)
Will I.	(This is not used at all, because "will" in the First person would imply intention, and it would be foolish to ask another person about one's own intentions.)

¹ This use of the Future Perfect tense to denote the completion of some event in *past* time has been overlooked in previous grammars. It seems like a contradiction to make a *future* tense have reference to *past* time. But the future here implies an inference regarding something which is believed to have passed rather than past time itself. "You *will have heard* " = I infer or believe that you have heard.

Shall you. *Shall you return home to-day?* (This merely inquires about something future. Here the "shall" cannot imply command, because it would be foolish to inquire of any one whether he commands himself to do so and so.)

Will you. *Will you do me this favour?* (Here the "will" denotes willingness or intention? Are you *willing* or do you *intend* to do me this favour? Hence "will you" is the form used for asking a favour.)

Shall he. *Shall he call for the doctor?* (Here the "shall" implies a command. Do you desire or command him to call for the doctor?)

Will he. *Will he be fourteen years old to-morrow?* (Here the "will" merely inquires about something future.)

Note 1.—"Will I" might be used for the moment as an answer to "will you."

Will you lend me your umbrella for a few minutes?

Answer.—*Will I?* Of course I will.

Note 2.—It might be questioned whether "shall" or "will" is the more correct in the following sentences:—

(a) James and I *shall* be very happy to see you.

(b) James and I *will* be very happy to see you.

The "shall" is demanded by "I," and the "will" by "James," according to the rule given in § 178. Both therefore might be used; but (b) is the more common of the two.

All doubt could be removed by rewriting the sentences as follows:—

James *will* be very happy to see you, and so *shall* I.

I *shall* be very happy to see you, and so *will* James.

(a) *In each of the following sentences supply the proper tense of the verb enclosed in brackets:*—

1. I (be) ill for the last two days.
2. I not yet (finish) the work that you gave me.
3. Clive (found) the British Empire in India.
4. The rain (begin) yesterday.
5. He (be) ill for two days, when the doctor was sent for.
6. Since the beginning of this week there (be) no break in the rains.
7. I not (see) him for several days.
8. Aurangzeb (do) much to make himself unpopular.
9. The parrot (die) a few days ago.
10. He scarcely (taste) that water, when he began to feel sick.
11. The lamp suddenly went out, as if some one (turn) down the wick.
12. We found the hare lying dead in the very spot where it (be) sat.
13. I (live) here for the last ten years.
14. The rain (begin) as soon as the wind went down.
15. He told me that he just (turn) home for the holidays.
16. Though he was defeated at last, he (win) many victories in former days.
17. He not (come) by the time when he was expected.
18. I (come) here yesterday, and (go) away to-morrow.
19. I (see) or visited the patient, who long (be) ill.
20. She no sooner (hear) the news, than she fainted.
21. He would not leave the room till he (be) promised some assistance.
22. I (send) notice in

December last. 23. The famine of 1877 (be) very severe. 24. He did not subscribe to that fund because he not (be) asked to do so. 25. He still thought he would recover, though the doctors (give up) his case as hopeless. 26. He (become) so proud that no one dares speak to him. 27. The grass (begin) to sprout, as the rains have now set in. 28. I (be) here for the last two weeks. 29. He not (go) far when he began to feel faint.

(b) Rewrite the following sentences, so as to bring out the full force of "shall" and "will":—

1. You shall not go home until you have finished your lesson.
2. Shall I send the horse at four o'clock?
3. I will give you your pay in due course.
4. Will you assist me in this matter?
5. Shall he carry your box for you?
6. An idle man shall not enter my service.
7. I will not grant you a certificate.
8. Will you punish me, if I leave the room without your consent?
9. By what time of the day shall I have your dinner ready?
10. He shall not ride that horse, till he has acquired a better seat.

§ 2.—FURTHER USES OF THE INFINITIVE.

380. The two main forms of the Infinitive are—(a) the Indefinite, "to love," and (b) the Perfect, "to have loved" (see § 192).

When should the one be used, and when the other?

381. The Indefinite form can be used after *any* and *every tense* of the preceding Finite verb. In fact, the tense of the preceding verb has no effect whatever on the tense of the Infinitive following it:—

	<i>Finite verb in all tenses.</i>	<i>Infinitive (Indefinite).</i>
<i>Present</i>	I expect I am expecting I have expected I have been expecting I expected I was expecting	} to meet you.
	I had expected.	
	I had been expecting	
<i>Past</i>	I shall expect	
	I shall be expecting	
<i>Future</i>	I shall have expected	
	I shall have been expecting	

382. The Perfect form is used in the following ways:—

(a) After the *Past* tenses of verbs expressing wish, intention, hope, etc., it shows that the wish, intention, or hope *was not realised*.—

He wished to have come;
 He intended to have come;
 He hoped to have come;
 He expected to have come; } but something prevented
 him from coming.

Note.—If we substitute the Indefinite form of the Infinitive for the Perfect form, nothing is implied as to whether the desire, etc., was fulfilled or not:—

He wished to come;
 He intended to come; } but whether he came or not is
 He hoped to come; } an open question.
 He expected to come;

(b) After verbs of seeming, appearing, etc., the Perfect form shows that the event denoted by the Infinitive took place at some time previous to that denoted by the Finite verb:—

Present. He seems
 Past. He seemed } to have worked hard (that is, at
 Future. He will seem } some previous time).

Note 1.—If we substitute the Indefinite form of the Infinitive for the Perfect, the tense denoted by the Infinitive verb is the same as that denoted by the Finite verb.

Present. He seems
 Past. He seemed } to work hard.
 Future. He will seem

Note 2.—The Perfect form of the Infinitive is frequently used in a past sense after verbs of saying in the Passive voice:—

He is said to have done this=It is said that he did this.

(c) After the verbs *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, the Perfect form of the Infinitive is used in the senses shown below:—

{ I (or you, or he) may have } =Perhaps I saw it: I am not sure
 seen it } whether I did so or not.

{ I (or you, or he) might } =I did not see it; although I was
 have seen it } permitted to do so.

{ I (or you, or he) can have seen it. (This is never used.)

{ I (or you, or he) could have } =I did not see it; although it was
 seen it } possible for me to do so. (This is very nearly equivalent to "I
 might have seen it.")

I shall have seen it.

(This is the ordinary Future Perfect tense, which, as explained in § 378, may mean either *future time* regarding some completed action, or an *inference* regarding some completed action.)

I should have seen it, if, etc.=I did not see it, because the condition indicated by "if" was not realised.

You (or he) shall have seen it. } (This is never used.)
 You (or he) should have seen it, if, etc. } (This is never used.)
 I will have seen it. (This is never used.)
 I would have seen it, if, etc. = I did not see it; but it was my intention to have done so, had the condition indicated by "if" been realised. (This is the same as "I should have seen it, if," etc., except that the latter refers merely to future action, and does not imply any *intention* as to future action.)
 You (or he) will have seen it. (This is the ordinary Future Perfect tense, and is identical with "I shall have seen it," except that in the Second and Third Persons it is necessary to substitute "will" for "shall.")
 You (or he) would have seen it, if, etc. = You or he did not see it, because the condition indicated by "if" was not realised. (This is the same as "I should have seen it, if," etc., except that in the Second and Third persons it is necessary to substitute "would" for "should.")

Note. — The verb "should" sometimes implies duty. It makes a great difference in the sense, whether the Indefinite or the Perfect form of the Infinitive is used after it:—

I should *do* this = I ought to do it. (*Indef. form.*)
 I should *have done* this = I did not do it; but I ought to have done it. (*Perfect form.*)

383. The Infinitive in either form is used in the following ways after the Present and Past tenses of the verbs "to have" and "to be":—

I have to go = it is necessary for me to go. } *Indef. form.*
 I had to go = it was necessary for me to go. } *Indef. form.*
 I had to have gone. (This is never used.) } *Perfect form.*
 I am to go = it is settled that I shall go. } *Indef. form.*
 I was to go = it was settled that I should go. } *Indef. form.*
 I was to have gone = I did not go, although it was settled that I should do so. } *Perfect form.*

384. The Indefinite form is used after the Subjunctive mood of the verb "to be," to denote a condition:—

Conditional clause.

(a) If he *were to see* me
 (b) If he *should see* me
 (c) If he *saw* me

Consequence.

he would know me at once.

The clauses marked (a), (b), and (c) all mean the same thing, except that a greater degree of doubt is implied in (a).

385. Infinitive after Relative Adverbs.—The Infinitive is placed after Relative adverbs in such phrases as “*how to write*,” “*when to come*,” “*where to begin*,” etc.

He did not know *how to write* (=the way to write).

He was not told *when to come* (=the time for coming).

I wish I knew *where to begin* (=the place for beginning).

Here the Relative adverb stands for the corresponding noun denoting manner, time, place, etc.

386. Infinitive after Relative Pronouns.—This occurs in such sentences as—

(a) He had no money *with which to buy* food.

This is equivalent to “He had no money to buy food *with it*”; or “He had no money to buy food *with*” (§ 242).

(b) He is not such a fool *as to say* that.

Here the construction is elliptical. “He is not such a fool as *he would be* a fool to say (=for saying, or if he said) that.”

387. For to.—In older English the preposition “for” was often used before the Noun-Infinitive (see § 195, d). Hence has arisen the common idiom of inserting a noun or pronoun between the preposition and the Infinitive.

There was too much noise *for any one to hear*.

The railway is the quickest way *for men or goods to be conveyed* from place to place.

§ 3.—REFLEXIVE USE OF TRANSITIVE VERBS.

388. A Transitive verb is said to be used reflexively, when the agent does something to himself. In that case the object is expressed by some Reflexive pronoun, “himself,” “herself,” etc.

He interested *himself* in my welfare.

389. Omission of the Reflexive Pronoun.—(a) Some Transitive verbs acquire an Intransitive counterpart by the omission of the Reflexive pronoun (see § 151, b); (b) others take no object other than a Reflexive pronoun, and therefore they never omit it; (c) others may retain or omit the Reflexive pronoun without change of meaning.

(a) Transitive verbs which acquire an Intransitive counterpart by omitting the Reflexive pronoun:—

Transitive Verb.

The fire *burnt* his finger.
Do not *stop* me.
They *open* the doors at nine.
A man *breaks* stones with a hammer.
The ox *drew* this cart.
Move away this stone.
He *broke* up the meeting.
The mouse *steals* food.
They *bathed* the child.
He *rolls* a ball down the hill.
He *burst* the door open.
Bad men *hide* their faults.
He *turned* me out of the room.
They *drop* the boat into the water.
They *keep* the boat on the left bank.
He *sets* the school in order.
He must *refrain* his tongue.
He *feeds* the horse on grain.
He *rested* his horse.
He *lengthened* his journey.
He *spread* his garment.
The shepherd *gathered* the sheep.
The wind *dispersed* the clouds.
He *closed* the business.
The sun *melt*s the snow.
He *dashed* down the cup.

Intransitive Counterpart.

He *burnt* with rage.
Let us *stop* here a little.
School *opens* at ten o'clock.
The day *breaks* at six.
He *drew* near to me.
Move on a little faster.
School *broke* up at three.
The mouse *steals* into its hole.
Let us *bathe* here.
The ball *rolls* down the hill.
The monsoon has *burst*.
Bats *hide* during the day.
He *turned* to me and spoke.
Rain *drops* from the sky.
The boat *keeps* on the left bank.
The sun *sets* at six P.M.
He must *refrain* from tears.
Many men *feed* on rice.
The horse *rested* in the stable.
The days begin to *lengthen*.
The mist *spreads* over the earth.
The sheep *gathered* round their shepherd.
The clouds *have dispersed* from the sky.
The day *closed* at six P.M.
The snow *melt*s in the sun.
He *dashed* out of the room.

(b) Transitive verbs, which never omit the Reflexive pronoun:—

Avail.—He availed *himself* of the offer.
Betake.—He betook *himself* back to his old quarters.
Plume.—You plume *yourself* on your handsome dress.
Absent.—They absented *themselves* for that day.
Bethink.—He bethought *himself* of an excellent plan.
Pride.—He prided *himself* on his success.

Note.—The verb “plume,” when it signifies to adjust plumes or feathers, may have some word of similar meaning as its object:—

Pluming *her* wings among the breezy bowers.—*Irving.*

(c) Transitive verbs which can omit or retain the Reflexive pronoun without change of meaning:—

Hide.—He hid, or hid *himself*, behind a tree.

Disperse.—The clouds have dispersed, or dispersed *themselves*.

Dress.—He dressed, or dressed *himself*, as fast as he could.

Spread.—The fog spread, or spread *itself*, over the field.

390. Transitive Verbs compounded with Adverbs.—

The Reflexive pronoun is frequently omitted after Transitive verbs compounded with an adverb. The verbs then become Intransitive, as in examples (a) of § 389.

He *made off* (ran away) with the money.

The horse *broke out* (rushed violently out) of the stable.

He *pushed on* (hurried forward) as fast as he could.

He *held forth* (spoke in public) on the subject of reform.

He *got on* (progressed) very well.

He *got off* (escaped) unharmed.

He had to *knock under* (submit) after all.

The plan *broke down* (collapsed, failed).

Cholera has *broken out* (suddenly appeared).

He *gave in* (yielded, succumbed) after a short struggle.

He *turned out* (became) a prosperous merchant.

He *set out* (started) at four P.M.

He *put up* (took up his quarters) with me.

He *withdrew* (withdrew himself, retired) from the meeting.

391. Some verbs, when a Reflexive pronoun is added to them, acquire some distinct or special meaning which they did not possess without it. The difference of meaning thus produced can be seen from the following examples:—

- { He *addressed* (wrote a letter to) his friend on the subject.
- { He *addressed himself* (made a formal reference) to the proper authority.
- { He *associated* (kept company) with pleasant companions.
- { He *associated himself* (entered into partnership) with that firm.
- { He *avenged* his father's wrongs (took vengeance for his father's wrongs).
- { He *avenged himself* on his enemies (took vengeance for his own wrongs).
- { He *broke off* (discontinued) the habit, etc. (*general*).
- { He *broke himself of* the habit, etc. (*emphatic*).
- { An avaricious man *delights* in riches (*general*).
- { An avaricious man *delights himself with* his riches (*emphatic*).
- { A cow *feeds* on grass (*general*).
- { A cow *feeds itself* on grass (*emphatic*).
- { Guard against (beware of) that vice.
- { Guard *yourself* (take special precautions) against that vice.
- { He *indulged* too freely *in* wine (drank it too freely).
- { He *indulged himself* (gratified his appetite) too freely *with* wine.
- { Do not *intrude* thus on my company (*general*).
- { Do not *intrude yourself* thus on my company (*emphatic*).

- { He *joined* (became a member of) our company.
- { He *joined himself* to (associated himself with) our company.
- { He *kept* (adhered) to his work (*general*).
- { He *kept himself* closely to his work (*emphatic*).
- { He *possessed* (owned) that fine estate.
- { He *possessed himself* (made himself owner) of that fine estate.
- { You should *provide* (be prepared) against the evil day.
- { You should *provide yourself* with everything needful against the evil day.
- { He *set* to work (began work) without further delay.
- { He *set himself* (made a determined effort) to win a prize.
- { He *settled* (made his home) in the south of England.
- { He *settled himself* (placed himself) in a posture of repose.
- { He *stripped off* (took off) his coat (*general*).
- { He *stripped himself of* his coat (*emphatic*).
- { I *trust in* you (believe in your integrity).
- { I *trust myself to* you (commit myself to your care).
- { He *worked* hard at that business.
- { He *worked himself* up into a bad temper.
- { He *rested* (took rest, or reclined) on the couch.
- { He *rested himself* (recruited his limbs by reclining) on the couch.
- { He *prepared* (made preparations) for the journey.
- { He *prepared himself* (made himself qualified to appear) for the examination.
- { He *set up* (started or made a commencement) in business.
- { He *set himself up* in business (provided himself with all requisites).
- { He *engaged* in commerce (made commerce his calling).
- { He *engaged himself* to a merchant (took service with a merchant).
- { He *applied* (made an application) to his superior officer.
- { He *applied himself* (gave great attention) to his studies.

§ 4.—ELLIIPSIS OF VERBS OR CLAUSES.

392. It is idiomatic to omit a verb, or a clause containing the verb, when such verb or clause can be easily understood from the context.

But for a complete understanding of the grammatical construction, or for analysing a sentence, it is necessary to supply the omissions.

(a) After the verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must* :—

Son, go and work in my vineyard. I will not (go).

(b) After conjunctions expressing some standard of comparison :—

He is not so industrious *as* his brother (is industrious).

His delight can be more easily conceived *than* (it can be easily) described.

(c) After the conjunctions "though," etc., named in § 282 :—

Though (he was) very tired, he did not give up.

(d) In answer to a question :—

Can you read? Not well (=I cannot read well), but I will try (to read).

Have you seen this before? No (I have not seen it before).

(e) In the middle of the conditional phrases “as if,” “as though,” “as when,” etc. :—

He laughed as (he would laugh) if he was much amused.

He is not in such good health as (he was in good health) when you saw him last.

(f) Omission of entire conditional clause :—

He would never consent to that (if you asked him).

Supply the Ellipses in the following sentences :—

1. You do not seem to have worked as hard as you might. (*Two clauses.*)

2. You knew this fact quite as well as I. (*Two clauses.*)

3. Oranges are now almost as cheap in London as in Spain or Italy (*Three clauses.*)

4. I am getting on quite as fast as you. (*Two clauses.*)

5. He behaved with the same courtesy to the poor as to the rich, and with the same boldness to the rich as to the poor. (*Four clauses.*)

6. The boat sank to the bottom as if filled with stones. (*Three clauses.*)

7. He is more industrious than ever. (*Two clauses.*)

8. Whatever you do, do it as one in earnest, and not as if you were trifling. (*Six clauses.*)

9. At what time did you get back? Ten minutes later than we ought. (*Three clauses.*)

10. He shed tears as if to display his grief, but they were not a genuine expression of sorrow. (*Four clauses.*)

11. He never looked so sad as when he had made a blunder. (*Three clauses.*)

12. You know no more than an untaught child how to spell. (*Two clauses.*)

13. Sooner than sign that contract, I am ready to give up the job altogether. (*Two clauses.*)

14. Nothing will do him so much good as a change of air: he will get more benefit from it than he supposes. (*Four clauses.*)

15. I would as soon be ruined altogether as endure such treatment as this from you. (*Three clauses.*)

16. When he became rich, he spurned his old friends as though he had never known them. (*Four clauses.*)

17. It is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle, than for a rich man to enter into the kingdom of God. (*Two clauses.*)

18. Why should I do this? To make amends for past injuries. (*Two clauses.*)

19. I'll meet the raging of the skies, but not an angry father. (*Two clauses.*)

20. God made the country, man the town. (*Two clauses.*)
21. He warned me that peace and honesty is the best policy, as if I had never heard it before, or never acted on it. (*Five clauses.*)
22. What sought they thus afar? Bright jewels of the mine? The wealth of seas? The spoils of war? They sought a faith's pure shrine. (*Five clauses.*)
23. He shouted at the top of his voice, as if to bring some one to his assistance. (*Three clauses.*)
24. The transport with which he was received by his parents may be more easily understood than describe. (*Three clauses.*)
25. I will not keep you longer than necessary. (*Two clauses.*)
26. He did me more harm than good. (*Two clauses.*)
27. Are they in as good health as when they were last here? No: not quite so good, but nearly. (*Five clauses.*)
28. You wish for many books, but not to read them: I for few books, and to master them. (*Four clauses.*)

§ 5.—SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

393. When two sentences are joined together by some Subordinative conjunction, or by some Relative (or Interrogative) pronoun or adverb, one of them is called the Principal and the other the Dependent sentence:—

Principle. *Dependent.*

I will let you know when I shall start.

394. There are two main rules about the Sequence of Tenses, and all special rules centre round these two.

RULE I.—*If there is a Past tense in the principal sentence, it must be followed by a Past tense in the dependent sentence:—*

*Principal Sentence.
(Past Tense.)*

It was settled,
He would come,
He was honest,
He asked me,
He was informed,
We never understood,
He did not leave off,
I was inquiring,
He succeeded,
He remained silent,
I would do this,
He walked so far.

*Dependent Sentence.
(Past Tense.)*

that I should do this.
if you wished it.
although he was poor.
whether I have seen his dog.
that I had been helping him.
how or why he did that.
till he had succeeded.
what you had heard.
because he worked hard.
as soon as he heard that.
if I were allowed.
that he tired himself.

RULE II.—*If there is a Present or Future tense in the principal sentence, it can be followed by any tense whatever in the dependent sentence.*

Examples of Rule II.

Present or Future.	that he reads a book.	Any tense whatever. The four forms of the Present tense.
	that he is reading.	
	that he has read.	
	that he has been reading.	
I know or I shall know	that he will read.	The four forms of the Future tense.
	that he will be reading.	
	that he will have read.	
	that he will have been reading.	
	that he read.	The four forms of the Past tense.
	that he was reading.	
	that he had read.	
	that he had been reading.	

395. Exception to Rule I.—There is one exception to Rule I. The Past tense in the principal sentence can be followed by a Present Indefinite in the dependent sentence, to express some *universal* or *habitual* fact:—

Principal Sentence. (Past Tense.)	Dependent Sentence. (Present Tense.)
They <i>learnt</i> at school,	that honesty <i>is</i> the best policy.
The students <i>were taught</i> ,	that the earth <i>moves</i> round the sun.
His illness <i>showed</i> him,	that all men <i>are</i> mortal.
He <i>was</i> glad to hear,	that his brother <i>is</i> industrious.
They <i>were sorry</i> to hear,	that he <i>has</i> a bad temper.

396. Conjunctions of Purpose.—When the dependent sentence is introduced by a Conjunction of *purpose* (§ 251, d), the two following rules must be observed:—

(a) If the verb in the principal sentence is in the Present or Future tense, the verb in the dependent sentence must be expressed by "may" (Present tense).

(b) If the verb in the principal sentence is in the Past tense, the verb in the dependent sentence must (in accordance with Rule I.) be expressed by "might" (Past tense).

	Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
Present	<i>Indef.</i> He comes,	Present tense. that he <i>may</i> see me.
	<i>Contin.</i> He is coming,	
	<i>Perfect.</i> He has come,	
Future	<i>Perf. Cont.</i> He has been coming,	that he <i>may</i> see me.
	<i>Indef.</i> He will come,	
	<i>Contin.</i> He will be coming,	
	<i>Perfect.</i> He will have come,	
	<i>Perf. Cont.</i> He will have been coming,	

		Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
Past	{ Indef. Contin. Perfect Perf. Cont.	He came, He was coming, He had come, He had been coming,	{ Past tense. that he might see me.

Note.—The word “lest” = “that not.” The *only* Auxiliary verb that can be used after “lest” is *should*, whatever may be the tense of the verb in the principal sentence:—

	Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
Present	He goes,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. { or that he <i>may</i> not see me.
Future	He will go,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. { or that he <i>may</i> not see me.
Past	He went,	{ lest he <i>should</i> see me. { or that he <i>might</i> not see me.

397. Conjunctions of Comparison.—When the dependent sentence is introduced by some Conjunction of Comparison, Rule I. has no existence whatever. *Any tense can be followed by any tense.*

Principal Sentence.	Dependent Sentence.
He <i>likes</i> you better,	than he <i>liked</i> me.
He <i>liked</i> you better,	than he <i>likes</i> me.
He <i>will like</i> you better,	than he <i>has liked</i> me.
He <i>has liked</i> you better,	than he <i>liked</i> me.
He <i>liked</i> you better,	than he <i>is liking</i> me.
He <i>will like</i> you better,	than he <i>was liking</i> me, etc.

Note 1.—If the comparison is expressed by “as well as” instead of “than,” the same rule holds good. Any tense may be followed by any tense, according to the sense intended by the speaker.

He *likes* you as well as he *liked* me.
He *will like* you as well as he *has liked* me, etc.

Note 2.—If no verb is expressed after “than” or after “as well as,” the tense of the verb *understood* in the dependent sentence is the same as that of the verb *expressed* in the principal sentence.

He *liked* you better than (*he liked*) me.
He *will like* you as well as (*he will like*) me.

(a) *In the following examples say whether the verb in the dependent sentence is right or not; and if it is not right, correct it:—*

1. I was informed that he *had been reading* a book.
2. He did not say when he *will come*.
3. No one knew whether he *intended* to come or not.
4. He concealed from me what his plans *are*.
5. I fear that you *were* displeased with me yesterday.
6. I shall soon find out why you *were* so displeased.
7. His face was so changed that I *do* not know him again.
8. The teacher gave me a prize that I *may*

work hard next year. 9. The teacher has given me a prize that I *may work* hard next year. 10. You will be pleased to hear that I *have won* a prize. 11. He asked me why I *wish* to go away so soon. 12. No one understood how he *can* do so much work. 13. He had come that he *might* help me to finish the task. 14. You did not tell me when you *intend* to return home. 15. I was sorry to find that I *have displeased* you. 16. I hope that you *will pardon* me soon. 17. I did not know why you *give* me this order. 18. We shall soon know what progress he *has made*. 19. We heard to-day what progress he *has made*. 20. You never told us that honesty *was* the best policy. 21. They told me that my brother *was* fond of his books. 22. He gave me good advice lest I *may* fall into evil ways. 23. He taught me that good deeds *were* never lost. 24. He lends me his book, that I *might* be saved the expense of buying one.

(b) In each of the following examples supply the proper tense and voice of the verbs enclosed in brackets:—

1. I hoped that you (return) soon. 2. If you (foresee) the consequences of idleness, you (be) more industrious than you were last term. 3. He tried how many miles he (can) walk in an hour. 4. He (go) away for a change, as soon as the holidays begin. 5. He not (go) away till the work of the term was over. 6. The oxen (low) so loud, that the thieves (can) not prevent us from finding out the place where they had hidden them. 7. He is so disappointed with the result that he (decide) to give up all further trial. 8. I went to his house that I (see) him and tell him all that (happen). 9. It was very unlikely that he (reach) before six o'clock P.M. 10. There was a rumour that he (perished) in the fire, which (break) out in the village yesterday. 11. I am sorry that you (keep) waiting so long last night. 12. I signed my name on the understanding that you (keep) your engagement with me; but I am sorry to see that you not (do) so. 13. Your son has turned out more industrious than I (expect) he (will). 14. To-morrow you (do) what I (do) to-day, and to-day you (do) what I (do) yesterday. 15. We never (see) such fine batting before, and perhaps we never (see) the like again. 16. Though he (gain) one prize already, he is willing to begin working for another. 17. The tradesman's voice trembled so much that my suspicions (arouse). 18. I gave him no answer lest I (make) him more angry than ever. 19. The more money he made, the more he (want). 20. Though he is a poor man, he never (resort) to anything dishonest. 21. He came upon me as suddenly as if he (drop) from the sky. 22. I hope you (make) up your mind that such a thing never (happen) again. 23. It made no difference to him how we (carry) on our business; for he (be) not one of our partners, and we (will) not take him into partnership, if he (ask) us. 24. He told me that he lately (pay) a visit to his native village. 25. They placed a guard at the door, lest the prisoner (find) means of escape; for he (has) friends outside, who (bring) him secret help, if they not (watch). 26. I shall not be satisfied, till I (gain) what I (want). 27. A lawsuit, even if you (gain) it, (cost) you more than the property is worth. 28. It (make) no difference to me, whether you complain against me or not.

CHAPTER XVII.—ADVERBS.

§ 1.—SPECIAL USES OF SIMPLE ADVERBS.

398. *Much, very.*

(a) "Much" qualifies adjectives or adverbs in the *Comparative* degree; "very" in the *Positive* :—

The air is *much* hotter to-day than yesterday.
We travelled quickly, but not *very* cheaply.

(b) "Much" qualifies *Past* participles; "very" *Present* ones :—

I was *much* surprised at hearing the news.
This news is *very* perplexing.

(c) "Very" is sometimes an adjective, used in the sense of *true, actual*, or for the sake of emphasis :—

This is the *very* man that I wanted to see.
He came at that *very* instant.

(d) "Very," in the sense of "actual" or "real," is used to give emphasis to adjectives in the *Superlative* degree :—

He is the *very* best student in the class.

(e) "Very" as an adverb is often used to qualify the adverb "much" :—

His work is *very* much better than yours.

(f) "Much" is used to intensify the *Superlative* degrees of adjectives :—

He is *much* (=very decidedly, to a very marked degree) the best student in the class.

Insert "much" or "very" in the places left blank :—

1. I am —— astonished at what you tell me.
2. He explained his meaning —— clearly.
3. Of these houses yours is —— the largest.
4. Of all these houses yours is the —— largest.
5. He is a —— industrious student.
6. He has worked —— harder than you have done.
7. You are —— more industrious than you were last year.
8. I am —— happy at hearing this good news.
9. He was taken —— ill on the —— day of his arrival.
10. They found gold in Southern India, and the workmen were —— pleased.
11. The —— thing that you ask for is what all men would be —— glad to have.
12. It is —— strange that you should be so —— surprised.
13. The accounts from home are —— distressing.

399. Too.

The adverb "too" denotes some kind of *excess*. It means "*more than enough*," something that goes beyond the contemplated limit or purpose. All such sentences as the following, where "too" has been wrongly written for "very," make sheer nonsense:—

My son's health has been *too* good. Sugar is *too* sweet. I am *too* happy to see you again. He writes *too* neatly, and spells *too* accurately. The milk of a cow is *too* nutritious. The water of this river is *too* pure. The roof of this house is *too* strong.

Note.—The force of "too" can be expressed by the prefix "over":—

He died of *over*-exposure (*too* much exposure) to the sun.
He *over*-ate himself = He ate *too* much.

400. Enough.

The meaning of "enough" is the opposite to that of "too." "Enough" signifies that the *proper limit or amount has been reached*; but "too" means "more than enough,"—that is, that the proper limit has been exceeded.

Whenever "enough" is used as an Adverb, it is placed *after* the word that it qualifies.

The air to-day is *cold enough* for me (= is as cold as I wish it to be). Your pay is *high enough* for your work (= is as high as it should be for your work).

The horses are tired: we have ridden *far enough* to-day (= as far as is proper for our horses).

He is now *strong enough* to leave his bed (= as strong as he should be for leaving his bed).

Note 1.—"Enough," besides being an Adverb of Quantity, can be also an Adjective of Quantity or an Adjective of Number (see § 96).

Note 2.—The adverb "enough," though it usually means "sufficiently," is sometimes a weak form of "very."

It is distressing *enough* (= very distressing) to get such evil tidings.

401. Little, a little.

There is the same difference between these two adverbs, as between the corresponding adjectives (see § 343).

(a) "Little" is used in a *Negative* sense, and means "*not much*"; in fact it is a weak form of "*not*," and is almost purely Negative:—

I *little* expected that he would succeed so well:
(I did *not* expect that he would succeed so well).

(b) "A little" is always used in an *Affirmative* sense, and means "to some extent at least," "slightly," "somewhat":—

He was *a little* (=slightly, somewhat) tired.
Are you tired? Yes; I am *a little* tired.

Note.—The adverb "a little" has come into use from the habitual omission of some noun that is understood after the adjective "little." Hence "a little" is an adverbial phrase rather than a pure adverb. In the adverbial phrase "a great deal" the noun has been retained; while in the corresponding adverbial phrase "a little" the noun has been dropped.

402. Since.

This word is sometimes an Adverb of Time, sometimes a Conjunction of Time, and sometimes a Preposition of Time.

The proper use of this word is to Indian students one of the greatest puzzles in the English language; but no difficulty will exist if the following rules are attended to:—

(a) As an Adverb it signifies *from now*,—that is, *from the present time dating backwards*, and its use is limited by three conditions:—(1) it stands *after* the word or words which it qualifies; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Past Indefinite* tense; (3) it is placed after a noun or phrase denoting some *period* of time, never after a noun denoting a *point* of time:—

The school *broke up* a fortnight *since* (=from now).

Erroneous.

My house *has fallen* two weeks since or ago.

The trees *have cast* their leaves a month since or ago.

He *has been staying* at home *yesterday since*.

They *have been absent* from school *last Monday since*.

Corrected.

My house *fell* two weeks since or ago.

The trees *cast* their leaves a month since or ago.

He *has been staying* at home *since yesterday*.

They *have been absent* from school *since Monday last*.

(b) As a Conjunction it signifies *from which time*, and its use is limited by three conditions:—(1) it is followed by a verb in the *Past Indefinite* tense; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Present Indefinite* or *Present Perfect* tense; (3) it is preceded by a noun or phrase denoting some

period of time, never by a noun denoting a *point* of time:—

It is now a week since the school *broke up*.

Erroneous.

Corrected.

Two years *passed* since my father died.

It *was* a week since the holidays commenced.

A month has *passed* since I *am coming* here.

Two hours have *elapsed* since he *had fallen* asleep.

Two years *have passed* since my father died.

It *is* a week since the holidays commenced.

A month has *passed* since I *came* here.

Two hours have *elapsed* since he *fell asleep*.

(c) As a **Preposition** it signifies *from*, and its use is limited by two conditions:—(1) it is placed before a noun or phrase denoting some *point* of time, never before a noun or phrase denoting a *period* of time; (2) it is preceded by a verb in the *Perfect tense*:—

The school *has been closed* since last Monday.

Erroneous.

Corrected.

My father *died* since last Thursday.

The school *was closed* since yesterday.

My father *has been ill* since three weeks.

The results *have been known* since two days.

My father *has been dead* since last Thursday.

The school *has been closed* since yesterday.

My father *has been ill for the last three weeks*.

The results *have been known for the last two days*.

403. Ago.

This is used only as an **Adverb** of Time, never as a **Conjunction** or **Preposition**. Its use as an adverb coincides exactly with that of "since," as explained above under (a); and it signifies (as "since" also does) *from the present time dating backwards*. The two words are precisely synonymous:—

My father *died* two years ago (=from now).

The school *broke up* a fortnight ago (=from now).

404. Before.

This word is used sometimes as an **Adverb** of Time, sometimes as a **Conjunction** of Time, and sometimes as a **Preposition** of Time.

(a) As an **Adverb** of Time it signifies *formerly*, or *on a former occasion* :—

I did this once *before*, and I will do it again.

The post has come an hour earlier than *before*.

I never *before* saw such a dreadful sight.

(b) As a **Conjunction** of Time it is followed by a verb in some Present tense, if the verb in the Principal clause is in the future tense :—

The crops will die, before the rains *fall* or *have fallen*.

(c) As a **Preposition** of Time it is always used with some noun or phrase denoting a *point* of time, and never with one denoting a *period* of time :—

The rains began to fall *before* the first of last month.

You will win a prize *before* your next birthday.

405. Already.

This adverb denotes that something has happened *prior to the time mentioned or thought of*. It is never correctly used in any other sense :—

Light the fire. It is lighted *already*.

Joseph's brethren went down into Egypt; Joseph himself was there *already*.

Does he seem to be recovering? He has almost recovered *already*. He was now nearly grown up; for he had *already* passed his twentieth birthday.

Before this letter reaches you, you will have *already* reached home.

406. Yes, No.

Mistakes are often made by Indian students in the use of "yes" or "no" in answering a question.

If the question is *affirmative* there is less fear of ambiguity in the answer :—

Question.—Is the sky cloudy to-day?

Answer.—Yes, it is; or No, it is not.

But if the question is put in a *Negative* form, the answer given is often ambiguous :—

Did you *not* find him at home?

The answer sometimes given is—

Yes, I did not find him at home.

This is wrong, and the proper answer would be—
Yes, I did find him at home ; or *No, I did not* find him at home.

Two rules, then, should be remembered :—

- (1) If the answer to be given is "yes," the verb following must be in the *affirmative*.
- (2) If the answer to be given is "no," the verb following must be in the *negative*.

Note.—Whenever the questioner wishes it to be understood that he expects the answer "yes," he uses "not" with the verb in asking the question :—

Is not India a hot country ?

The question thus expressed with "not" implies that in the opinion of the questioner India *is* a hot country, and that he expects the other person to agree with him and say—

Yes, India certainly *is* a hot country.

407. Again.

The uses and meanings of this adverb can be seen from the following examples :—

- (1) I hope you will never come here *again* (=a second time).
- (2) When he was reviled, he reviled not *again* (=in return).
- (3) Prick me Bullock till he roar *again* (=repeatedly).
- (4) As you have broken my pencil, perhaps you will mend it *again* (mend it so as to restore it to what it was before it was broken).
- (5) *Again* (=moreover); even if we were allowed to go, it is now too late to start.
- (6) My eldest son is fond of languages ; the second *again* (=on the other hand) prefers science.
- (7) Start for a fresh term at college, and send me news *again* (=back) of your safe arrival.
- (8) This book is as hard *again* (=repeated) as that : (=this book is twice as hard as that).

408. There.

This adverb usually signifies "in that place." But it frequently stands as the first word in a sentence, where it has merely an *introductory* value, and has no significance of place (see § 29).

It should be used in the introductory sense, when the verb is *Intransitive*, and is followed (instead of being preceded) by its subject :—

There were four persons present.

There came a messenger from the king's court.

409. Why.

This is usually an Interrogative adverb. But it is also used colloquially as an expletive to denote slight impatience, surprise, hesitation, etc.

Why, what a foolish question! (*Impatience.*)

What are you doing here? *Why*, I can hardly say. (*Hesitation.*)

410. Indeed.

This adverb has three main senses or uses:—

(1) In the sense of “certainly” :—

That was *indeed* (certainly) a very serious blunder.

(2) In an Interjectional sense :—

Indeed! I cannot agree with you on that point.

(3) In the sense of admission or concession :—

He is clever *indeed* in books, but a fool in practice.

411. Quite.

This adverb means “perfectly,” “completely”; but in India it is often wrongly used as equivalent to “very.”

Thus it is wrong to say :—“This bridge is *quite* dangerous”; “Bad water is *quite* unwholesome.”

Note.—“Quite,” however, is sometimes used with Past Participles in the sense of “very”; as “quite delighted,” “quite tired.”

412. Once.

This adverb is ambiguous: (a) it sometimes means “on one single occasion,” and (b) sometimes “formerly,” “at some time in the past.”

(a) If he *once* begins, he is sure to go on well.

(b) There was *once* (formerly, in some past time) a grievous famine in the land.

§ 2.—ADVERBIAL PHRASES IN COMMON USE.

413. The use of the following adverbial phrases should be noted:—

(1) *Above all*; before every other consideration :—

Above all (before anything else) beware of idleness.

(2) *Above board*; without any secret or underhand scheming :—

Everything that he did was *open* and *above board*.

(3) **After all**; in spite of every fact or appearance to the contrary :—

He died *after all* (that is, notwithstanding the fact that he seemed at times likely to recover).

After all, it does not matter to us whether we win or not : (that is, it seemed to make a great difference ; but if we look into the subject more closely, we find that it does not matter).

(4) **Again and again, over and over again, time and again**.—These phrases denote frequent repetition, and signify a great deal more than “*again*” standing by itself :—

I shall have to mention this *again and again* ; (that is, very often, and not merely once again).

(5) **As it were**.—This is an adverbial *clause* rather than an adverbial *phrase*, since it contains a Finite verb. It is introduced for the purpose of making some sort of apology for using a word in an unusual sense or an unusual connection :—

A good teacher is *as it were* (=if I may be allowed to say so) the intellectual father of his pupils.

(6) **As yet, yet**; up to the present time.—The addition of “*as*” is not necessary, and should be avoided :—

I have never failed *yet* or *as yet* : (that is, I have never failed, so far as relates to past time, but not future).

(7) **At all**.—This is used only to emphasise a negation :—

Did you see any cows in that field ? None *at all*.
He never laughed *at all*.

(8) **At once**.—This phrase sometimes means “*immediately*,” and sometimes “*simultaneously*” :—

He came *at once* (immediately).

They all came *at once* (simultaneously).

Note.—Here “*once*” stands for a noun “one time,” and is the object to the preposition “*at*” (see § 241, *a*).

(9) **At present, presently**.—These words mean very different things ; but in India they are apt to be confounded. “*Presently*” means the same as “*shortly*” :—

Nothing more can be done *at present*, or *for the present* (at the present time).

I will return *presently* or *shortly* (after a short time).

(10) **Before long**; in a short time :—

He will return to us *before long* (before a long time has passed).

(11) **By and by**.—This signifies “*after an interval*”

whether the interval is a long or a short one, is either left open, or depends on the context:—

You will feel better *by and by* (after a time).

By and by (some time afterwards) the teacher came into the room.

It is therefore wrong to use it (as is often done in India) in the sense of “*little by little*,” or “*gradually*,” or “*one by one*.”

Erroneous.

The visitors went away *by and by*.
He recovered his health *by and by*.
The water all flowed out *by and by*.

Corrected.

The visitors went away *one by one*.
He *gradually* recovered his health.
The water all flowed out *little by little*.

(12) **By the by.**—This means “*incidentally*,” or “*in passing*” :—

By the by (=let me remark in passing), I heard yesterday that there was a violent storm of wind at Calcutta two days ago.

(13) **Far and away, out and out**; very decidedly, beyond all comparison. These phrases give emphasis to an adjective in the Superlative degree :—

This boy is *far and away*, or *out and out* (very decidedly), the cleverest boy in the class.

(14) **Far and near**; in all directions. “**Far and wide**” is sometimes used in the same sense :—

He sought for his missing friends *far and near*.

(15) **First and foremost.**—This is a more emphatic way of expressing “*first*.” “*First*” and “*foremost*” mean the same thing: the emphasis is produced by repeating the same thing twice :—

First and foremost (before anything else), let me caution you against idleness.

(16) **For long.**—This means for a long time. It is generally used in reference to *future* time; but sometimes also to past :—

He was imprisoned *for long*.

Men are not remembered *for long*.

(17) **In time.**—This sometimes means “*by the proper time*,” and sometimes “*eventually*,” or “*at some time or other*” :—

He was not there *in time* (by the proper time).

A thief is certain to be caught *in time* (eventually).

(18) **In the long run, sooner or later; eventually** :—

A knave will be caught *in the long run*, or *sooner or later*.

(19) **Now and then**, *every now and then*; occasionally, at odd moments :—

I hear from him *now and then*, or *every now and then*.

Note.—These two phrases mean the same thing—“occasionally.” In the latter phrase, “every” is a Distributive adjective, and the Compound adverb “now and then” is used as a noun to the adjective “every.”

(20) **Of course**.—This signifies *in the course of nature*, or *by natural consequence*, and is introduced as a sort of apology for saying something that must necessarily be true, and was therefore scarcely worth mentioning :—

My son was plucked, and of course (=as a matter of necessity) he was very much vexed.

But in India the custom has sprung up of using this phrase loosely in the sense of certainty in general, whether the fact asserted is necessarily true or not.

<i>Erroneous.</i>	<i>Corrected.</i>
I shall <i>of course</i> come here to-	I shall <i>certainly</i> come here to-mor-
row.	
<i>Of course</i> she sings very well.	She <i>certainly</i> sings very well.
Did he win a prize last year? <i>Of</i>	Did he win a prize last term? <i>Cer-</i>
<i>course</i> he did.	<i>tainly</i> he did.

(21) **Off and on**; irregularly :—

He has been learning English *off and on* (not steadily) for some time past.

The opposite to this phrase is *on and on*, which means “regularly,” “steadily,” “without interruption.”

He worked *on and on* for seven years running.

(22) **On** compounded with verbs :—

He *lived on* (continued living) several years more.

He *walked on* (continued walking) for another hour.

When the adverb “on” is compounded with a verb, it denotes the continuance of the action expressed by the verb.

(23) **On high**; in an elevated place.—Sometimes this phrase is used as an object to a preposition, and is preceded by the preposition “from.” See § 241 (b).

The dayspring from *on high* (heaven) hath visited us.—*New Testament*.

(24) **On the alert**; in a state of watchfulness or activity :—

He was always *on the alert*, whenever the teacher came into the room.

(25) **On the contrary, to the contrary**.—These phrases

are not identical in meaning, as may be seen from the following examples :—

I do not admire that man : *on the contrary* (far from admiring him).
I have a great contempt for him.

I have nothing to say *to the contrary* (I have nothing to say against what you or some one else has said).

(26) **On the defensive** ; in an attitude of defence as opposed to one of attack :—

He acted *on the defensive*, and did not attempt to attack.

(27) **Once again, once more, over again**.—These phrases all mean the same thing, and denote that something is repeated only once, and not twice or more than twice :—

I shall have to mention this *once again* (=on one other occasion).

(28) **Once and again, now and again**.—The first means “*repeatedly*,” once and more than once. The second means “*occasionally*” :—

Once and again the parrot said, “Come in.”

Now and again the parrot bit the wire of its cage.

(29) **Once for all**.—This means that a thing is done once, and will never be repeated :—

I tell you *once for all* that this noise must cease.

They settled the matter *once for all*, and the question was not reopened.

(30) **Over and above**.—This is sometimes used as a preposition, and sometimes as an adverb :—

Prep.—*Over and above* (in addition to) what I have lost, I have been unjustly blamed.

Adv.—He was injured, and insulted *over and above*.

(31) **Previous, previously**.—The adjective “*previous*” has somehow or other come to be used adverbially :—

The ground must be well dug *previous* or *previously* to the sowing of the seed.

(32) **Through and through**.—As the phrase “*again and again*” denotes frequency of repetition, so the phrase “*through and through*” denotes thoroughness and completeness of accomplishment :—

He was drenched *through and through* (to the very skin).

He was pierced *through and through* (so that the spear came out at the opposite side of his body).

He read that book *through and through* (every word of it from beginning to end).

(33) **To and fro** ; backwards and forwards :—

He walked *to and fro*, trying to make up his mind what to do.

(34) **To-morrow, on the morrow**.—The first means “on the day following *this day*.” The second means “on the day following *that day*” :—

We will start *to-morrow* (the day after *this day*).

They started *on the morrow* (the day following *that day*, namely, the day last mentioned in the narrative).

(35) **What not**.—When this phrase is used, it stands after a string of nouns or verbs, and denotes that many more might be added, but there is none need to mention them :—

Steam propels, lowers, elevates, pumps, drains, pulls, and what not (what does it not do?).

Persians, Copts, Tartars, Medes, Syrians, and what not (=and several more whom I need not name), were brought under the dominion of Alexander the Great.

§ 3.—ADVERBS QUALIFYING PREPOSITIONS.

414. It has been shown in § 222 that a preposition (or the phrase introduced by a preposition) can be qualified by adverbs. Examples of such adverbs are shown below :—

A little.

We have gone *a little* beyond a mile.

The crow flew *a little* above his head.

He is *a little* under fourteen years of age.

Almost.

A sword was hanging *almost* over his head.

It fell *almost* on his head.

Along.

He visited London *along with* his friend.

It was *all along of* (entirely owing to) your idleness that you were plucked. (Here the adverb “all” qualifies the prepositional phrase “*along of*.” The phrase is colloquial.)

All.

His horse sprang forward *all of* a sudden.

I have looked *all through* that book.

Your efforts were *all to* no purpose.

Such conduct is *all of* a piece (thoroughly consistent) with his character.

Altogether.

He married *altogether below* his station.

Apart.

Apart from his imprudence (without taking his imprudence into account), he has been very unfortunate.

Away.

He is never happy, *away from* home.

Close.

He is *close upon* fourteen years (very nearly fourteen) years of age.
He came and sat *close beside* me.

Decidedly.

Your son's industry is *decidedly above* the average.

Distinctly.

His abilities are *distinctly above* the average.

Down.

They lived *down in* a valley.

They made him pay his debt *down to* the last farthing.

Entirely.

It was *entirely through* your neglect that we were late.
He took his hat *entirely off* his head.

Exactly.

The house stands *exactly on* the top of the hill.

Every word was copied out *exactly to* the letter.

Your quarters are *exactly under* mine.

Far.

Your work is *far below* the proper mark.

My house stands *far beyond* the river.

Far from despising that man, I greatly respect him.

Greatly.

Greatly to his credit, he came out first.

Hard.

The cottage stood *hard by* the river.

Half.

By this time we had sailed *half across* the Atlantic.

Immediately.

He went to bed *immediately after* his arrival.

Immediately on his beginning to speak, every one was silent.

Long.

He arrived *long after* twelve o'clock.

Much.

His work is *much below* the mark.

Much to his surprise he was plucked.

Out.

That was all done *out of* envy.

I am *out of* patience with that man.

Partly.

He wept *partly through* sorrow, and *partly through* anger.

The fog is *partly above* and *partly below* us.

Precisely.

It was *precisely* on that point that we differed.
He arrived *precisely* at four o'clock.

Quite.

We walked *quite* *through* that forest (through its entire breadth).
He held his head *quite* *below* the water.
I am *quite* of the same opinion as yourself.

Right.

He was leaning *right* *against* the wall.
The sun was *right* *above* our heads.

Shortly.

He reached home *shortly* *before* four o'clock.

Soon.

I managed to get back *soon* *after* six.

Up.

Your work is not *up* *to* date.

Well.

I am sure I am *well* *within* the mark.

CHAPTER XVIII.—PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

§ 1.—RELATIONS DENOTED BY PREPOSITIONS.

415. A preposition (as it has been defined in § 10) shows "the relation in which the person or thing denoted by its object stands to something else." The relations denoted by the different prepositions may be summed up as follows:—

(1) **About** (on + by + out): nearness of some kind:—

1. He had a comforter *about* his neck . . . *Nearness of place.*
2. It is *about* seven o'clock . . . *Nearness of time.*
3. He is *about* to be married . . . *Nearness of state.*
4. He went *about* his work in earnest . . . *Occupation.*
5. I am fond of hearing *about* ships. . . *Concerning.*

(2) **Above** (on + by + up): in a higher position:—

1. A sword was hanging *above* his head . . . *Higher than, over.*
2. His expenses are *above* his means . . . *More than.*
3. He is *above* such meanness . . . *Superior to.*

(3) **Across** (on + cross, cross-wise): from one side to the opposite:—

1. My house is *across* the river . . . *On the opposite side of.*
2. He laid the bundle *across* his shoulder . . . *On both sides of.*
3. The light fell *across* the street . . . *From one side to the other.*

(4) **After** (of + ter, comparative of "of") : sequence :—

1. I will enter *after* you *Sequence in place.*
2. He arrived *after* dark *Sequence in time.*
3. *After* all I have heard I am convinced *Sequence as effect.*
4. He is always seeking *after* wealth *Search or pursuit.*
5. He takes *after* his father *Resemblance.*
6. *After* all the advice I gave, he adopted a contrary course *Notwithstanding, contrast.*

(5) **Against** (on + going) : opposition of some kind :—

1. He is leaning *against* a wall *Opposition of place.*
2. He is acting *against* his own interests *Opposition of aim.*
2. Store up your grain *against* famine *Provision for.*
4. Four students have passed this year *against* three last year *Comparison.*

(6) **Along** (on + long, lengthwise) :—

The line went *along* the highway *In the same line with anything: contrary to "across."*
 He walked *along* the river's bank

(7) **Amid, amidst** (on + middle) :—

He was brave *amidst* all dangers *In the midst of.*

(8) **Among, amongst** (on + gemang, in a multitude) :—

Distribute the books *among* the students *In the midst of more than two.*
 He is fond of rambling *among* the trees

(9) **Around or round** (on + round) :—

To draw a circle *round* a given centre
 They stood *around* him, while he spoke *Contrary to "amidst."*

(10) **At** : proximity with actual or intended contact :—

1. He is not *at* home just now *Proximity in place.*
2. He was there *at* four o'clock *Proximity in time.*
3. He is now quite *at* his ease *Proximity in state.*
4. Stand up *at* the word of command *Proximity in effect.*
5. *At* what price is this sold? *Proximity in value.*
6. He frowned *at* me for laughing *at* him *Proximity in aim.*
7. He was busily *at* work all day *Proximity in occupation.*

(11) **Athwart** (on + thwart) : from one side to the other :—

The shadow ran *athwart* the grass. *Across.*

(12) **Before** (by + fore) : the contrary to "behind" :—
 1. He stands *before* the door *In front of.*
 2. The train starts *before* ten o'clock *Priority in time.*
 3. Death *before* dishonour *Priority of choice.*

(13) **Behind** (by + hind) : the contrary to "before" :—
 1. The dog ran *behind* its master *At the back of.*
 2. The train is *behind* its time *Lateness in time.*
 3. There is a smile *behind* his frown *Concealment.*

(14) **Below** (by + low) : at a lower point or degree :—
 1. He stood *below* me in class *Lower than.*
 2. The number was *below* ten *Less than.*
 3. His attainments are *below* yours *Inferior to.*

(15) **Beneath** (by + neath) : in a lower position :—
 1. Let us rest *beneath* the shade *Under.*
 2. His conduct is *beneath* contempt *Inferiority.*

(16) **Beside** (by + side) : by the side of :—
 1. He is standing *beside* his mother *By the side of.*
 2. That remark is *beside* the question *Irrelevancy.*

(17) **Besides** : in addition to :—
Besides advising, he gave them money. *In addition to.*

(18) **Between** (by + twain) : in the middle of *two* :—
 How long *halt ye between* two opinions?

(19) **Beyond** (by + yonder) or **past** : on the farther side of :—
 1. My house is *beyond* or *past* those hills *Place.*
 2. It is now half-past two o'clock *Time.*
 3. This is *past* or *beyond* endurance *State.*

(20) **But** (by + out) : except :—
 All *but* one were drowned
 He was all *but* (everything except) ruined } *Exception or exclusion.*

(21) **By** : nearness of some kind :—
 1. Come and sit *by* me *Nearness in place.*
 2. Always get up *by* sunrise *Nearness in time.*
 3. He was fairly treated *by* me *Agency.*
 4. Seize him *by* the neck *Manner, means, or instrument.*
 5. He is cleverer than you *by* a good deal *Amount, measure.*
 6. He swore *by* heaven *Adjuration.*

(22) **Down** : descent of some kind :—
 The monkey ran *down* the tree *Descent.*

(23) **For** : in front of, or in the place of :—

1. He will soon start <i>for</i> home	<i>Direction in space.</i>
2. He was imprisoned <i>for</i> life	<i>Direction in time.</i>
3. <i>For</i> what offence was he imprisoned ?	<i>Cause or reason.</i>
4. <i>For</i> all his learning, he has no sense	<i>In spite of.</i>
5. He sold his horse <i>for</i> a small sum	<i>Exchange.</i>
6. He fought hard <i>for</i> his friends	<i>On behalf of.</i>
7. Do not translate word <i>for</i> word	<i>Conformity.</i>
8. This stuff is not fit <i>for</i> food	<i>Purpose.</i>

(24) **From** : motion or rest apart from anything :—

1. He had gone <i>from</i> home	<i>Space.</i>
2. You must begin <i>from</i> daybreak	<i>Time.</i>
3. He is sprung <i>from</i> noble ancestors	<i>Source.</i>
4. <i>From</i> all we hear he is mad	<i>Inference.</i>
5. This was all done <i>from</i> spite	<i>Motive.</i>
6. A fool may easily be known <i>from</i> a wise man	<i>Discrimination.</i>

(25) **In** : rest in the interior of anything :—

1. He is not <i>in</i> the house	<i>Space.</i>
2. Expect me <i>in</i> (at the end of) a few days	<i>Time.</i>
3. He is <i>in</i> a bad temper	<i>State, manner.</i>
4. We found a true friend <i>in</i> him	<i>Point of reference.</i>

(26) **Into** : motion towards the interior of anything :—

1. One stream flows <i>into</i> another	<i>Space.</i>
2. He slept late <i>into</i> the day	<i>Time.</i>
3. Water is changed <i>into</i> steam by heat	<i>State.</i>

(27) **Of** : (sometimes *off*) : proceeding from, and hence pertaining to :—

1. What did he die <i>of</i> ?	<i>Cause.</i>
2. <i>Of</i> what family is he sprung ?	<i>Source.</i>
3. He was despised and rejected <i>of</i> men	<i>Agency (rare).</i>
4. He was deprived <i>of</i> his appointment	<i>Separation.</i>
5. He is a man <i>of</i> strong will	<i>Quality.</i>
6. He sent me a box <i>of</i> books	<i>Contents.</i>
7. This box is made <i>of</i> leather	<i>Material.</i>
8. He lived in the house <i>of</i> his father	<i>Possession.</i>
9. He received the sum <i>of</i> 100 rupees	<i>Apposition.</i>
10. What are you thinking <i>of</i> ?	<i>Concerning.</i>
11. The horse is lame <i>of</i> one leg	<i>Point of reference.</i>
12. Do not tear the page <i>of</i> that book	<i>Partition.</i>
13. The love <i>of</i> parents (parents' love for child)	<i>Subject.</i>
14. The love <i>of</i> parents (child's love for parents)	<i>Object.</i>
15. He used to come here <i>of</i> an evening	<i>Time.</i>

(28) **Off**: separation at a near distance :—

Ceylon is an island *off* the south of India.
He fell *off* his horse. He was taken *off* his guard.

(29) **On or upon**: rest on the upper surface of a thing :—

1. I place my hand *on* the table *Point of space.*
2. I came here *on* Saturday last *Point of time.*
3. He lives *on* his father *Dependence.*
4. He was appointed *on* these terms *Condition or basis.*
5. They made an attack *on* my house *Direction.*
6. He spoke for an hour *on* that subject *Concerning.*

(30) **Out of**: motion from the interior of a thing :—

1. The mouse jumped *out of* its hole *Place.*
2. I paid it *out of* my own pocket *Source.*
3. He said that *out of* ill temper *Motive.*
4. He is *out of* his mind *Exclusion.*

(31) **Over** (comparative of "of") : above or beyond any thing :—

1. The sun shines *over* the earth *Above in space.*
2. He was absent *over* two weeks *Beyond in time.*
3. His house is *over* the way *On the other side of.*
4. He is placed *over* me *Authority.*
5. He has been promoted *over* my head *Precedence.*

(32) **Since** : from some *point* of *past* time (not from a period of time) : see § 402 (c) :—

It has not rained *since* Thursday last.

(33) **Than** : comparison or difference :—

1. I will not take less *than* ten rupees *Comparison.*
2. No person other *than* a graduate will be fit *Difference.*

(34) **Through** : across the interior of anything :—

1. Bore a hole *through* that plank *Place.*
2. He worked hard *through* or *throughout* the summer *Time.*
3. He has passed *through* many troubles *State.*
4. *Through* your help I may succeed *Cause.*
5. All this was done *through* envy *Motive.*

(35) **To** : motion towards anything :—

1. He has returned *to* his father's house *Place.*
2. You must go back *to-night* *Time.*
3. *To* all appearances he is tired *Adaptation.*
4. The chances are *three to one* *Proportion.*
5. They fought *to* the last man *Limit.*
6. *To* their utter disgust they failed *Effect.*
7. { They will come to dinner } *Purpose.*
 { He came *to* see us }

(36) **Towards** :—

1. He is coming <i>towards</i> the house . . .	<i>Nearness of approach.</i>
2. It is now <i>towards</i> evening . . .	<i>Nearness of time.</i>
3. He was very kind <i>towards</i> his neighbour . . .	<i>Behaviour.</i>
4. He gave nothing <i>towards</i> that object . . .	<i>In aid of.</i>

(37) **Under** : rest or motion in a lower place :—

1. The house is <i>under</i> repairs . . .	<i>Subjection.</i>
2. It will not be finished <i>under</i> ten days . . .	<i>Less than.</i>
3. He travelled <i>under</i> the guise of a monk . . .	<i>Concealment.</i>

(38) **Up** : rest or motion to a higher place :—

1. The monkey ran <i>up</i> the tree . . .	<i>Motion.</i>
2. The monkey is seated <i>up</i> the tree . . .	<i>Rest.</i>

(39) **With** :—

1. He arrived <i>with</i> all his luggage . . .	<i>Union in place.</i>
2. Frogs begin to croak <i>with</i> the rainfall . . .	<i>Union in time.</i>
3. His views do not accord <i>with</i> mine . . .	<i>Agreement.</i>
4. One king fought <i>with</i> another . . .	<i>Opposition.</i>
5. I parted <i>with</i> my friend yesterday . . .	<i>Separation.</i>
6. He is not popular <i>with</i> his pupils . . .	<i>Point of reference.</i>
7. <i>With</i> all his wealth he is in debt . . .	<i>In spite of.</i>
8. He killed the kite <i>with</i> a stone . . .	<i>Instrument.</i>
9. He looked upon them <i>with</i> anger . . .	<i>Manner.</i>
10. He has long been sick <i>with</i> fever . . .	<i>Cause.</i>

(40) **Within** : inside the limits of anything :—

1. He always slept <i>within</i> doors . . .	<i>Space.</i>
2. You must be back <i>within</i> an hour . . .	<i>Time.</i>
3. This is not <i>within</i> my power . . .	<i>Circumstance.</i>

(41) **Without** : on the outside of anything :—

1. He came <i>without</i> any money . . .	<i>Opposite to "with."</i>
2. He stood <i>without</i> the gate . . .	<i>Opposite to "within."</i>

416. Prepositional Phrases.—The following examples show how the principal prepositional phrases are used. Every such phrase ends in a Simple preposition (§ 30, b).

As to.—I will inquire again *as to* what your reasons are.

At home in.—He is quite *at home in* (familiar with) Euclid.

At the top of.—He shouted *at the top of* his voice (as loud as he could).

At enmity with.—The Jews were *at enmity with* (enemies to) the Samaritans.

At variance with.—Your words are *at variance with* (opposed to) the facts.

Because of.—He could not leave the house *because of* a snowstorm.

By dint of.—He gained the first prize *by dint of* steady application.
 By force of.—Most things can be made easy *by force of* habit.
 By means of.—He recovered his health *by means of* sea-air and sea-bathing.
 By the side of.—The dog was sleeping *by the side of* (beside) its master.
 By virtue of.—They won the day, but only *by virtue of* hard fighting.
 By way of.—I mention this point *by way of* cautioning you.
 For fear of.—He took an umbrella *for fear of* being caught in rain.
 For the purpose of.—He bought the land *for the purpose of* building on it.
 For the sake of.—*For the sake of* settling the matter they agreed to a compromise.
 For want of.—The crops failed *for want of* seasonable rain.
 In accordance with.—Your actions are not *in accordance with* common sense.
 In or on behalf of.—This request is made to you *on behalf of* my son.
 In case of.—I have kept a reserve fund *in case of* accidents.
 In common with.—You deserve to be blamed *in common with* the rest.
 In connection with.—Tell me all you know *in connection with* that matter.
 In consequence of.—*In consequence of* that shipwreck many families are in mourning.
 In consideration of.—*In consideration of* (=considering) his hard work, he may be allowed another chance.
 In course of.—He happened, *in course of* conversation, to say that, etc.
 In defence of.—He said all he could *in defence of* his client.
 In defiance of.—He got up a riot *in defiance of* the law.
 In favour of.—He has resigned his post *in favour of* his son (on the understanding that his son would succeed him).
 In front of.—The house stood *in front of* the bridge.
 In honour of.—The day was kept as a public holiday *in honour of* the victory.
 In keeping with.—His love of sport is *in keeping with* his age.
 In lieu of.—You must take my subscription *in lieu of* (as an equivalent to or substitute for) his.
 In opposition to.—What you have done was *in opposition to* my wishes.
 In point of.—He is senior to me *in point of* age, but not of service.
 In prospect of.—Men plough and sow *in prospect of* the coming harvest.
 In pursuance of.—He was ready to do anything *in pursuance of* that object.
 In quest of.—They went out to Australia *in quest of* or *in search of* (to look for) gold.
 In respect of.—*In respect of* (=in point of) age he is my senior.
 In spite of.—*In spite of* (=notwithstanding) all the advice that I gave him, he took to the practice of smoking.

Instead of.—You had much better work *instead of* idling away your time.

In view of.—We must make up our minds at once *in view of* (=considering) the urgency of the case.

In sight of.—We had now come *in sight of* land.

In the event of; or in case of.—I shall have another chance *in the event of* or *in case of* failure.

In the face of.—He was always brave *in the face of* danger.

In the guise of.—He travelled to Bokhara *in the guise of* a darwesh.

In the hope of.—He tried again *in the hope of* succeeding next time.

In the rear of.—The baggage followed *in the rear of* the troops on march.

In the teeth of.—The ship could scarcely hold her course *in the teeth of* the wind (while the wind was blowing straight against her).

In order to.—Nothing should be left untried *in order to* accomplish this.

In proportion to.—He is cleverer than you are *in proportion to* his years.

In regard to.—What have you to say *in regard to* that subject?

In unison with.—His opinions are not *in unison with* those of the majority of men.

On account of.—The famine took place *on account of* the failure of the rains.

On the brink of.—The country is *on the brink of* a serious disaster.

On the eve of.—He died *on the eve of* victory.

On the ground of.—He declined the invitation *on the ground of* a previous engagement (alleging a previous engagement as the ground or reason of his refusal).

On the part of.—Incompetence *on the part of* a judge cannot but lead to miscarriage of justice.

On the point of.—He was *on the point of* letting out the secret when he checked himself.

On the score of.—He begs to be excused *on the score of* inexperience. (This means the same as *on the ground of*.)

On pretence of.—His evil deeds were done *on pretence of* religion.

With a view to.—I said all I could *with a view to* proving his innocence.

With an eye to.—He is working hard now *with an eye to* the future.

With reference to.—I have nothing to say *with reference to*, or *with regard to*, or *with respect to* this question.

Insert prepositions or phrases in the places left blank:—

1.—1. He will — necessity hear what you have to say. 2. The house could not be finished — lack of funds. 3. She died — sorrow — her great bereavement. 4. He was plucked — the surprise — every one. 5. The owner — this house has lowered his rent — many other houses being vacant — the neighbourhood. 6. He deserves to be blamed — his idleness. 7. Some medicine given — this time will be — his benefit, unless — the mean-

while he dies — this attack — fever. 8. I cannot sleep — thinking — all that I must do. 9. — my great disappointment the house is not yet ready — me to enter.

II.—1. He was taken — a traveller. 2. A viceroy is one who rules — a king or queen. 3. Sixteen seers — wheat are sold — a rupee. 4. He led his army — the city; but the inhabitants fought bravely — their homes, and therefore — capturing the town he was repulsed. 5. What he said and did was only meant — fun. 6. He was picked up and carried off — dead. 7. You have grappled bravely — your difficulties. 8. He disputed that point — me. 9. You must take my crop — a cash payment. 10. Grain can be given — rent.

III.—1. He always failed — want — help. 2. None — the brave deserves the fair. 3. — all appearances he is seriously ill. 4. This picture was painted — a good model. 5. All — three were drowned in that shipwreck. 6. He is still poor — all his labours. 7. I distrust you — all your professions and fair words. 8. You will not convince me — all your endeavours. 9. Your dress is well suited — your figure, and would suit any one — a short man. 10. Let the coat be made — this pattern — a cost — twenty rupees. 11. He was a brute — a man — all that you may say — his praise. 12. There is no large island near India — the island — Ceylon. 13. The city — Patna is — the province — Behar. 14. Such customs are not adapted — the continent — Asia. 15. Men should not attempt to live — foreign models.

IV.—1. I prefer a book — travels to one — pictures. 2. This must be done — any rate, or — all risks, or — all hazards, or — all events. 3. He is taller than you — two inches. 4. That portrait is true — the life. 5. He did it as a labour — love, but not as a matter — duty. 6. She wore a wreath — roses. 7. A man continues to improve — mind and body — the age of thirty. 8. Your agreement must be carried out — the very letter. 9. I set all your threats — nought. 10. He is a man — much experience, but you must not judge — him — his words. 11. He fought out the question — the last, and set all their reproofs — defiance.

V.—1. We must take advice — that matter. 2. He inquired — whether the train would arrive — twelve o'clock. 3. You can see — his manner that he is speaking the truth. 4. What he said, he said — his heart. 5. He missed his aim, and they all laughed — him. 6. You are rather severe — the student. 7. The dog made a violent attack — the stranger. 8. Dirty water comes — a dirty fountain. 9. He shouted — him to come. 10. Look — that beautiful star. 11. He worked hard — a desire to earn his own living. 12. One man winked — the other. 13. This was his first attempt — English composition. 14. He was sent — an errand of mercy. 15. When do you intend to start — home?

VI.—1. He was faithful — deed as well as — word. 2. My son, — whom a better son was never born, has just left college. 3. He incurred a loss of ten — one — that imprudent bargain. 4. A man dull — understanding and slow — speech is not likely to

prosper. 5. My friend is not only learned — Sanskrit, but versed — modern studies. 6. Swear not at all; neither — heaven, for it is God's throne; nor — earth, for it is God's footstool; nor — thy head, for thou canst not make one hair white or black. 7. What are you —? 8. He is clever — translation. 9. We all play fairly well — cricket. 10. He is always engaged — business. 11. A man should always be employed — something, and should not be sparing — labour — anything that he undertakes. 12. Although he was short — money and timid — disposition, yet — perseverance he conquered.

VII.—1. He saved all the money he could spare — the evil day. 2. A few men — the host were slain. 3. A blind man cannot tell black — white, or light — darkness. 4. Get all the men together — the arrival of the chief. 5. I should not have known him — his brother. 6. He inherited a third — the estate. 7. He is something — a scholar. 8. He never knows a friend — an enemy. 9. Many — the wounded did not recover. 10. That city is forty miles — here. 11. We are now within three miles — the house. 12. The man seems to be — his head. 13. He is — debt. 14. Calcutta is not very far — the sea. 15. He was acquitted — that charge. 16. We are — duty to-day, but shall be on duty again to-morrow. 17. The school is — order. 18. The flute is — tune. 19. He broke himself — that habit. 20. Can you cure me — this disease?

VIII.—1. The conduct of such an honourable man is — suspicion. 2. Such work is — a person — my poor abilities. 3. Man is — the angels. 4. The British army — Havelock marched — Lucknow. 5. The general placed — the army is a man — long experience. 6. His words are so false that they are — notice. 7. A man should not marry a wife — him. 8. Since you have been placed — me, I must obey. 9. He was transferred — the orders of his superior. 10. He is quite — your thumb. 11. I differ — you entirely. 12. I have made a contract — him. 13. He has a bad habit — arguing — other persons — trifles.

IX.—1. All men should follow truth; for if truth fails — first, it will prevail — last, and triumph — falsehood — the end. 2. He offered his horse — a low price, and it was sold — the first bid made — the auctioneer — one — the persons present. 3. He is not a true man: there is a secret meaning — his words. 4. Some said he was mad or — himself. 5. They halted — two opinions, and quarrelled — themselves. 6. He struck the boy — a whip, and then had him beaten — one — the masters. 7. I will stand — you — this matter; the difficulties will disappear one — one. 8. I took that man — a rogue, because he asked two rupees — a hat which was not fit — use. 9. He was bruised — head — foot; but he is now free — danger. 10. You may know a dog — a wolf — the slant — the eye — the animal last named. 11. It was kind — you to say that; for every one speaks — me as being a rogue — a lawyer. 12. Your conduct is bad, indeed it is — contempt; and your honesty is not — suspicion. 13. He ruled — his people — great justice, but not — some severity — those

who offended — the law. 14. He was popular — his subjects — the whole, although he was never lenient — habitual offenders. 15. They will fight — the last man, and — my mind they will gain the day. 16. I learnt — my surprise that the book I gave him was not — his taste.

§ 2.—ON THE USE OR MISUSE OF PREPOSITIONS.

417. Wrong Use or Wrong Omission of Prepositions.

—The following mistakes should be guarded against:—

Erroneous.

He *ordered* for my dismissal.
He does not *obey* to my words.
This book *resembles* to that.
I will *inform* to your father.
I am *tired with* this work.
He was *angry upon* me.
He *complained upon* me.
No one can *depend* his word.
Ten scholarships were *competed*.
You must *apply* the judge for pardon.
He will not *listen* what you say.
I hope you will *assist* to me in this matter.
I tried, but could not *prevail* him.

I must now *dispense* your services.

Have you *signed* to that contract?
You should not have *violated* against the rules.
A modest man does not *boast* his merits.
He carefully *investigated* into the case.

You must *compensate* this loss to me.

I *confess* some suspicion of your honesty.
I shall *combat* with your views at the meeting.

Have you *disposed* the current work?

Your medicine has *benefited* to me much.

He *recommended* for me to the magistrate.

Corrected.

He *ordered* my dismissal.
He does not *obey* my words.
This book *resembles* that.
I will *inform* your father.
I am *tired of* this work.
He was *angry with* me.
He *complained against* me.
No one can *depend on* his word.
Ten scholarships were *competed for*.
You must *apply to* the judge for pardon.
He will not *listen to* what you say.
I hope you will *assist* me in this matter.
I tried but could not *prevail with* or *on* him.
I must now *dispense with* your services.
Have you *signed* that contract?
You should not have *violated* the rules.
A modest man does not *boast of* his merits.
He carefully *investigated* the case.

You must *compensate* me for this loss.
You must *make good* to me this loss.
I *confess* to some suspicion of your honesty.
I shall *combat* your views at the meeting.
Have you *disposed of* the current work?
Your medicine has *benefited* me much.
He *recommended me* to the magistrate.

Erroneous.

That thought *pervades* through my whole mind.

It is useless to *muse* past errors.

Let us *partake* a meal before we start.

He *meditates* his past life.

He *meditates upon* a fresh attempt.

Your fault does not *admit* any excuses.

That thought *pervades* my whole mind.

It is useless to *muse upon* past errors.

Let us *partake of* a meal before we start.

He *meditates on* his past life.

He *meditates (=proposes to make)* a fresh attempt.

Your fault does not *admit of* any excuses.

Corrected.

418. **Gerunds preceded by Prepositions.**—A Simple Infinitive and a Gerund are equivalent in meaning (see § 44). But if a preposition is required, the Gerund or some equivalent Abstract noun should be substituted for the Infinitive, and should be made the object to the preposition.

Note.—The only Prepositions that can have a verb in the Infinitive mood as object are *about*, *than*, *but*, *for* (see § 195, d).

Erroneous.

He persisted *to say* this.

I insisted *to have* my fee paid.

We should refrain *to do* evil.

They prohibited me *to borrow* a book.

Do not prevent me *to work*.

I insisted *on him to go* away.

Abstain *to speak* evil of others.

I am debarred *to send* you a specimen.

He resigned himself *to fail*.

I am confident *to win*.

I am intent *to win*.

He assisted *to do* this.

He hindered me *to do* this.

He despaired *to succeed*.

He repented *to have been* idle.

You have no excuse *to be* idle.

Your brother has a passion *to study*.

He excels *to speak* English.

I was discouraged *to learn* English.

You are disqualified *to manage* your estate.

You are right *to hold* that opinion.

He persisted *in saying* this.

I insisted *on having* my fee paid.

We should refrain *from doing* evil.

They prohibited me *from borrowing* a book.

Do not prevent me *from working*.

I insisted *on his going* away.

Abstain *from speaking* ill of others.

I am debarred *from sending* you a specimen.

He resigned himself *to failure*.

I am confident *of winning*.

I am intent *on winning*.

He assisted *in doing* this.

He hindered me *from doing* this.

He despaired *of success*.

He repented *of having been* idle.

You have no excuse *for being* idle.

Your brother has a passion *for studying*.

He excels *in speaking* English.

I was discouraged *against learning* English.

You are disqualified *for managing* your estate.

You are right *in holding* that opinion.

Corrected.

Erroneous.

Are you desirous *to eat* your breakfast?
He is fearful *to go* out to sea.

Corrected.

Are you desirous *of eating* your breakfast?
He is fearful *of going* out to sea.

419. The following peculiarities in the use of Prepositions should be noted:—

(a) **At, in.**—“*At*” relates to a *small* extent of space or time; “*in*” to a *wider* extent:—

He will start *at* six o'clock *in* the morning.

The end is *at* hand (=very close).

The work is *in* hand (=in a state of progress).

(b) **With, by.**—“*With*” relates to the *instrument* employed for doing anything; “*by*” to the *agent* or doer:—

This book was written *by* me *with* a quill pen.

(c) **After, in.**—In relation to a *past* space of time we use “*after*”; in relation to a *future* space of time we use “*in*”:—

He died *after* (=at the close of) a few days. (Past.)

He will die *in* (=at the close of) a few days. (Future.)

Note.—The mistake is often made of using “*after*” with reference to a space of *future* time; whereas it should be used only with reference to a space of *past* time. Hence we cannot say:—“He will die *after* a few days.”

(d) **Between, among.**—The first denotes “*in the middle of two*”; the second “*in the middle of more than two*”:—

Those two men quarrelled *between* themselves.

Those three men quarrelled *among* themselves.

(e) **Beside, besides.**—The former means *by the side of*, and hence sometimes *outside of*. The latter means *in addition to*:—

He came and sat *beside* me (=by my side).

Your answer is *beside* (=outside of, irrelevant to) the question.

Besides (=in addition to) advising he gave them some money.

(f) **By, since, before.**—These are all used for a *point of time*,—not for a *period or space of time*:—

You must be back *by* four o'clock.

He has been here *since* four o'clock.

He did not get back *before* four o'clock.

(g) **In, into.**—The preposition “*in*” denotes position or rest inside anything; while “*into*” denotes motion towards the inside of anything:—

The frog is *in* the well. (*Rest.*)

The frog fell *into* the well. (*Motion.*)

(h) **In, within.**—"In" denotes (as has been explained under c), "at the close of some future period"; "within" denotes some time *short of the close* :—

He will return *in* (=at the close of) a week's time.

He will return *within* (=in less than) a week's time.

(i) **Since, from.**—Both of these denote a *point* of time, not a space or period. But "since" is preceded by a verb in some Perfect tense, while "from" can be used with any form of tense. Another difference is that "since" can be used only in reference to *past* time, whereas "from" can be also used for *present* and *future* time :—

He *has been* taken ill *since* Thursday last.

{ He *began* Latin *from* the age of ten. (*Past.*)

{ He *begins* school *from* to-day. (*Present.*)

{ He *will begin* school *from* to-morrow. (*Future.*)

(j) **Before, for.**—"For" is used with *negative* sentences, to denote a *space* of *future* time.

"Before" is used in negative and affirmative sentences alike, to denote a *point* of *future* time.

{ The sun will *not* rise *for* an hour.

{ (We could not say "before an hour," because "before" is used for a point of time, and not for a space of time.)

{ The sun will rise (*affirmative*)

{ The sun will *not* rise (*negative*) } *before* six o'clock.

Insert appropriate prepositions in the places left blank.—

1. I was brought up — Italy — Rome. 2. The moon rose — twelve o'clock — the night. 3. We knew him — a glance as soon as he came — sight. 4. He lives — Nuddea — the province of Bengal. 5. The boat was tied to the shore — a sailor — a rope. 6. The field was ploughed up — a peasant — a pair of oxen. 7. The work must be done — twelve o'clock. 8. You must be back — a week from the present time. 9. No one has seen him — Thursday last. 10. I have not seen him — his last birthday. 11. He will not get home — sunset. 12. I shall be ready to start — two or three hours. 13. Take care to be back — mid-day. 14. I shall not be back — the end of the week. 15. He has been absent from home — Friday last, and I do not think he will return — the 30th of next month. 16. Let me see you again — an hour's time. 17. I shall have completed my task — to-morrow evening. 18. The train will start — forty minutes from now. 19. I have lived — Allahabad — 1st March. 20. I do not expect that he will be here — a week, and I am certain that he will not be here — sunset to-day.

II.—1. I was born — India — Bombay. 2. I shall expect you to be here — four o'clock, or at least — three hours from the present time. 3. He shot this bird — a gun. 4. He fell — a violent rage. 5. Come — my private room. 6. I have not seen him — the last three days. 7. You need not get up — eight o'clock A.M., but you must go to bed — nine P.M. — the latest. 8. He has been hard — work — sunrise. 9. He slept soundly — three hours running. 10. It rained — seven — twelve o'clock. 11. You have not visited me — a long time past. 12. I have not heard of you — the last week. 13. I shall start — two hours. 14. I have lived — Calcutta — a year. 15. Call on me — an hour. 16. He called on me — a few days. 17. I live — London, — No. 5 Trafalgar Square. 18. I have had no rest — the last hour. 19. He has been a lucky person — the day — which he began business; and I believe he will be lucky — the rest — his life. 20. Thirty men applied for help; but there was only a small sum to be divided — them. 21. Perfect confidence ought to exist — two such friends as we are.

§ 3.—WORDS FOLLOWED BY PREPOSITIONS.

420. Particular words are followed by particular prepositions, although there may be several other prepositions that have the same meaning. For instance, out of the numerous prepositions or prepositional phrases signifying cause, the verb "die" has somehow or other selected "of" for denoting the illness which was the cause of death, and declines to be followed by any other. Thus we say, "He died of fever." We do not say, "He died through fever, or by fever, or from fever, or owing to fever, or on account of fever, or with fever." Yet in other connections all of these prepositions may be used to denote cause.

Again, though we always say "die of fever," we never say "sick of fever," but always "sick with fever," where "with" and "of" are both used in the sense of cause.

(a) Nouns followed by Prepositions.

Abatement of the fever.

" from the price asked.

Abhorrence of ingratitude.

Ability for or in some work.

Abstinence from wine.

Abundance of food.

Access to a person or place.

Accession to the throne.

Accomplice with a person in some crime.

(In) accordance with rule.

Accusation of theft.

Acquaintance with a person or a thing.

Adaptation of means to an end.

Adherence to a plan or cause.

Admission to a person.

into a place.

Advance (progress) of learning.

(of a person) in knowledge.

(To take) advantage of some one's mistake.

(To gain) an advantage over some one.

(To have) the advantage of a man.

Affection for a person.

Affinity with something.

,, between two things.

Allegiance to a person.

Alliance with a person or state.

Allusion to something.

Alteration of day with night.

Alternative to a plan.

Ambition for distinction.

Amends for some fault.

Analogy of one thing with another.

,, between two things.

Animosity against a person.

Annexation to some kingdom.

Antidote to some poison.

,, against infection.

Antipathy to some animal or some taste.

Anxiety for any one's safety.

Apology for some fault.

Apostate from a creed.

Appetite for food.

Application to books.

,, for employment.

Apprehension of danger.

Approach to (step towards) anything.

Aptitude for mathematics.

Arrival at a place.

,, in a country.

Ascendancy over a person.

Aspiration after or for fame.

Assault on a person or thing.

Assent to an opinion.

Assurance of help.

Atonement for sin.

Attachment to a person or thing.

Attack on a place.

Attendance on a person.

,, at a place.

Attention to study.

Attraction to or towards a thing.

Authority over a person.

,, on a subject.

,, for saying or doing.

Aversion to a person or thing.

Bar to success.

Bargain with a person.

,, for a thing.

Battle with anyone.

Beneficence to the poor.

Benevolence towards the poor.

Betrayal of a secret.

Bias towards a thing.

Blindness to one's own faults.

Candidate for election.

Capacity for mathematics.

Care for his safety.

,, of his books.

Cause for anxiety.

,, of trouble.

Caution against error.

Certainty about a matter.

Certificate of good conduct.

Cessation from work.

Charge of murder (Noun).

,, with murder (Verb).

Claim on or against some one.

,, to something.

Cloak for vice.

Coheir with a person to some property.

Collusion with a person.

Comment on something said.

Commerce with a country.

Compact with a person.

Comparison with a person or thing.

Compassion for a person.

Compensation for a loss.

Competition with a person.

,, for a thing.

Complaint against a person.

,, about a thing.

Compliance with a request.

Complicity in a crime.

Concession to a demand.

Concurrence with a person.

,, in a proposal.

Condemnation to death.

Condolence with a person.

Confidence in a person.

Conformity with any one's views.

,, to rule.

Connection with a person or thing.

Connivance at any one's faults.

Consciousness of guilt.

Consideration for a person.

,, of a thing.

Contact with something.

(A) contemporary of some person.

Contempt for a person or thing.

(A) contrast to a person or thing.

✓ *(In) contrast with* a person or thing. ✓
 ✓ *Contribution to* a fund.
 ✓ *„ towards* some project.
 ✓ *Control over* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Controversy with* a person.
 ✓ *„ on or about* something.
 ✓ *Convergence to* a point.
 ✓ *Conversation with* a person.
 ✓ *Conviction of* guilt.
 ✓ *Copartner with* a person.
 ✓ *„ in* something.
 ✓ *Copy from* nature.
 ✓ *Correspondence with* a person.
 ✓ *„ to* a thing.
 ✓ *Craving for* anything.
 ✓ *Decision on* some case.
 ✓ *„ of* some dispute.
 ✓ *Degradation from* rank.
 ✓ *Delight in* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Deliverance from* a danger.
 ✓ *Dependence on* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Descent from* ancestors.
 ✓ *Desire for* wealth.
 ✓ *Deviation from* rule.
 ✓ *Dexterity in* doing something.
 ✓ *Digression from* a subject.
 ✓ *Disagreement with* a person.
 ✓ *Discouragement to* a person.
 ✓ *Disgrace to* a person.
 ✓ *Disgust at* meanness.
 ✓ *Dislike to* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Dissent from* a proposal.
 ✓ *Distaste for* mathematics.
 ✓ *Distrust of* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Dominion over* sea and land.
 ✓ *Doubt of or about* a thing.
 ✓ *Drawback to* success.
 ✓ *Duty to* a person.
 ✓ *Eagerness for* distinction.
 ✓ *Economy of* time.
 ✓ *Eminence in* painting.
 ✓ *Emulation for* the first place.
 ✓ *Encroachment on* one's rights.
 ✓ *Endeavour after* happiness.
 ✓ *Endurance of* pain.
 ✓ *Engagement in* a business.
 ✓ *„ with* a person.
 ✓ *Enmity with* a person.
 ✓ *Entrance into* a place.
 ✓ *Envy at* another's success.
 ✓ *Equality with* a person. ✓
 ✓ *Escape from* punishment.
 ✓ *Esteem for* a person.
 ✓ *Estrangement from* a person.
 ✓ *Evasion of* a rule.
 ✓ *Exception to* a rule.
 ✓ *(Make) an exception of* some person
or thing.
 ✓ *Excuse for* a fault.
 ✓ *Exemption from* a penalty.
 ✓ *Experience of* a thing.
 ✓ *„ in* doing something.
 ✓ *Exposure to* danger.
 ✓ *Failure of* a plan.
 ✓ *„ of* a person *in* something.
 ✓ *Faith in* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Familiarity with* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Fine for* an offence.
 ✓ *Fitness for* some position.
 ✓ *Fondness for* anything.
 ✓ *Forbearance for* some weakness.
 ✓ *Freedom from* care.
 ✓ *„ of* action.
 ✓ *(Has) a genius for* mathematics.
 ✓ *(Is) a genius in* mathematics.
 ✓ *Glance at* a person or thing.
 ✓ *„ over* a wide surface.
 ✓ *Gratitude for* a thing.
 ✓ *„ to* a person.
 ✓ *Greediness for or after* a thing.
 ✓ *Grief at* an event.
 ✓ *„ for* a person.
 ✓ *Guarantee for* a man's honesty.
 ✓ *Guess at* the truth.
 ✓ *Harmony with* anything.
 ✓ *Hatred of or for* a person.
 ✓ *„ of* a thing.
 ✓ *Heir to* some property.
 ✓ *„ of* some person.
 ✓ *Herkmate to* another person.
 ✓ *Hindrance to* anything.
 ✓ *Hint at* some reward.
 ✓ *Hope of or for* better luck.
 ✓ *Hostility to* a person or cause.
 ✓ *Identity with* a person or thing.
 ✓ *Immersion into* water.
 ✓ *Impediment to* progress.
 ✓ *Implication in* some misdeed.

Imposition on the public.	✓	Likeness to a person or thing.
Imprecations on some one.		Liking for a person or thing.
Imputation of guilt.		Limit to a man's zeal.
", against some one.		Longing for or after a thing.
Incentive to industry.		Look at a thing.
Inclination for or to study.	✓	Lust for money.
Independence of help.	✓	
Indifference to heat or cold.	✓	
Indulgence in wine.	✓	Malice against a person.
", to a person.		Margin for losses.
Inference from facts.	✓	Martyr to rheumatism.
Infliction of punishment.	✓	", for a certain cause.
", on the guilty.		Match for a person.
Influence over or with a person.		Menace to the public health.
", on a man's action.		Motive for action.
Initiation into a brotherhood.	✓	Necessity for anything.
Inkling of a secret.	✓	", of the case.
Innovation upon former practice.		Need for assistance.
Inquiry into circumstances.		(In) need of assistance.
Insight into a man's character.		Neglect of duty.
Instruction in music.		", in doing a thing.
Intercession with a superior.		Nerve for riding.
", for a friend.		Nomination of a person.
Intercourse with a person.		", to a post.
Interest in a subject.		
", with a person.		Obedience to orders, parents, etc.
Interference with a man's affairs.		Objection to a proposal.
Interview with a person.		Obligation to a person.
Intimacy with a person.		Obstruction to traffic.
Intrusion into a man's house.		Offence against morality.
Invective against a person.		", at something done.
Investiture with a title.		Offset to a loss.
Invitation to a dinner.		Onslaught on a traveller.
Irruption into a country.		Operation on a thing.
", by invaders.		Opportunity for action.
Jest at a man's bad luck.		Opposition to a person.
Joy in his good luck.		Order for or against doing a thing.
Judge of a matter.	✓	Outlook from a window.
Jurisdiction over a province.		", on the sea.
", in a lawsuit.		
Justification of or for crime.	✓	Parley with a person.
Key to a mystery.		Parody on or of a poem.
Laxity in morals.		Partiality for flatterers.
Lecture on a subject.		Partnership in a thing.
Leisure for amusement.		", with a person.
Leniency to prisoners.		Passion for gambling.
Liability to an illness.		(At) peace with all men.
Libel on a person.		Penance for some fault.
", against his character.		Penetration into motives.
		Penitence for some fault.
		Perseverance in well-doing.

<i>Persistence in an attempt.</i>	<i>Relations with a person.</i>
<i>Piety towards God.</i>	<i>Relevancy to a question.</i>
<i>Pity for sufferers.</i>	<i>Reliance on a man's word.</i>
<i>Popularity with neighbours.</i>	<i>Relish for food.</i>
<i>Postscript to a letter.</i>	<i>Remedy for or against snakebite.</i>
<i>Power over a person.</i>	<i>Remonstrance with a person.</i>
<i>Precaution against infection.</i>	<i>;, against his conduct.</i>
<i>Predilection for a person or thing.</i>	<i>Revenge for a crime.</i>
<i>Preface to a book.</i>	<i>Reparation for an injury.</i>
<i>Preference for one thing.</i>	<i>Repentance for sin.</i>
<i> ", to another thing.</i>	<i>Reply to a letter.</i>
<i>Prejudice against a person.</i>	<i>Repugnance to his wishes.</i>
<i>Premium on gold.</i>	<i>Reputation for honesty.</i>
<i>Preparation for action.</i>	<i>Request for a thing.</i>
<i>Pretension to learning.</i>	<i>Resemblance to a person or thing.</i>
<i>Pretext for interference.</i>	<i>Resignation to fate.</i>
<i>Pride in his wealth (Noun).</i>	<i>Resistance to injustice.</i>
<i>Prides himself on his wealth (Verb).</i>	<i>Resolution into elements.</i>
<i>Proficiency in mathematics.</i>	<i> on a matter.</i>
<i>Profit to the seller.</i>	<i>Respect for a man or his office.</i>
<i>Progress in study.</i>	<i>(In) respect of some quality.</i>
<i>Prohibition against doing a thing.</i>	<i>(With) respect (to) a matter.</i>
<i>Proneness to deceit.</i>	<i>Respite from suffering.</i>
<i>Proof of guilt.</i>	<i>Responsibility to the law.</i>
<i> ", against temptation.</i>	<i> for action.</i>
<i>Propensity to gambling.</i>	<i>Result of a proceeding.</i>
<i>Proportion of three to one.</i>	<i>Reverence for age.</i>
<i>Fro'test against his proceedings.</i>	<i>Revolt against authority.</i>
<i>Provocation to or for action.</i>	<i>Rival in anything.</i>
<i>(In) pursuance of an object.</i>	<i>Rivalry with a person.</i>
<i>Qualification for office.</i>	<i>Rupture with a friend.</i>
<i>Quarrel with another person.</i>	<i> between two persons.</i>
<i> ", between two persons.</i>	
<i>Question on a point.</i>	
<i>Ratio of one to five.</i>	<i>Satire against follies.</i>
<i>Readiness at figures.</i>	<i>Satisfaction for some fault.</i>
<i> ", in answering.</i>	<i>Savour of an orange.</i>
<i> ", for a journey.</i>	<i>Search for or after wealth.</i>
<i>Reason for a thing.</i>	<i>(In) search of wealth.</i>
<i> ", against a thing.</i>	<i>Sequel to an event.</i>
<i>Receptacle for boxes.</i>	<i>Shame at or for his fault.</i>
<i>Recompense for labour.</i>	<i>Share of a thing.</i>
<i>Reference to a person or thing.</i>	<i> with a person.</i>
<i>Reflections on a man's honesty.</i>	<i>Sin against God.</i>
<i>Regard for a man's feelings.</i>	<i>(A) slave to avarice.</i>
<i>(In) regard to that matter.</i>	<i>(The) slave of avarice.</i>
<i>Regret for something done.</i>	<i>Slur on his character.</i>
<i>Relapse into idleness.</i>	<i>Sneer at good men.</i>
<i>Relation of one thing to another.</i>	<i>Sorrow for his misfortunes.</i>
<i> ", between two things.</i>	<i>Specific for or against fever.</i>
	<i>Speculation in bank shares.</i>
	<i>Suite against a person.</i>

Stain *on* one's character.
 Stickler *for* trifles.
 Subjection *to* the laws.
 Submission *to* authority.
 Subscription *to* a fund.
 Subsistence *on* rice.
 Succession *to* an estate.
 Supplement *to* a book.
 Supremacy *over* a country.
 Surety *for* a person.
 Suspicion *of* his intentions.
 Sympathy *with* or *for* the poor.
 Taste (experience) *of* hard work.
 (liking) *for* hard work.
 Temperance *in* diet.
 Temptation *to* evil.
 Tenacity *of* purpose.
 Testimony *to* his character.
 " *against* his character.
 Title *to* an estate.
 Traffic *in* salt.
 " *with* Calcutta.
 Traitor *to* his country.

Treatise *on* medicine.
 Trespass *against* the law.
 Trust *in* his honesty.
 Umbrage *at* his behaviour.
 (In) unison *with* his character.
 (We have no) use *for* that.
 (What is the) use *of* that?
 (There is no) use *in* that.
 (At) variance *with* a person.
 (A) victim *to* oppression.
 (The) victim *of* oppression.
 Victory *over* his passions.
 Want *of* money.
 Warrant *for* his arrest.
 Witness *of* or *to* an event.
 Wonder *at* his rudeness.
 Yearning *for* his home.
 Zeal *for* a cause.
 Zest *for* enjoyment.

(b) *Adjectives and Participles followed by Prepositions.*

Abandoned *to* his fate.
 Abhorrent *to* his feelings.
 Abounding *in* or *with* fish.
 Absolved *of* a charge.
 Absorbed *in* study.
 Acceptable *to* a person.
 Accessible *to* strangers.
 Accessory *to* a crime.
 Accomplished *in* an art.
 Accountable *to* a person.
 " *for* a thing.
 Accruing *to* a person *from* some thing.
 Accurate *in* his statistics.
 Accused *of* a crime.
 Accustomed *to* riding.
 Acquainted *with* a person or thing.
 Acquitted *of* a charge.
 Adapted *to* his tastes.
 " *for* an occupation.
 Addicted *to* bad habits.
 Adequate *to* his wants.
 Adjacent *to* a place.
 Adverse *to* his interests.
 Affectionate *to* a person.

Afflicted *with* rheumatism.
 Afraid *of* death.
 Aggravated *at* a thing.
 " *with* a person.
 Aghast *at* a sight.
 Agreeable *to* his wishes.
 Akin *to* a person or thing.
 Alarmed *at* a rumour.
 Alien *to* his character.
 Alienated *from* a friend.
 Alive *to* the consequences.
 Allied *to* a thing.
 " *with* a person or country.
 Allowable *to* or *for* a person.
 Amazed *at* anything.
 Ambitious *of* distinction.
 Amenable *to* reason.
 Amused *at* a joke.
 Analogous *to* a thing.
 Angry *at* a thing.
 " *with* a person.
 Annoyed *at* a thing.
 " *with* a person *for* saying or doing something.
 Answerable *to* a person.
 " *for* his conduct.

Anxious for his safety.	Cautious of giving offence.
about the result.	Celebrated for his ability.
Appalled at the prospect.	Censurable for some fault.
Apparent to any one.	Certain of success.
Applicable to a case.	Chagrined at his failure.
Apprehensive of danger.	Characterised by a thing.
Apprised of a fact.	Characteristic of a person.
Appropriate to an occasion.	Charged to his account.
Apt (expert) in mathematics.	.loaded with a bullet.
, for a purpose.	, with (accused of) a crime.
Arraigned for high treason.	Clamorous for better pay.
Arrayed in fine linen.	, against lower pay.
against the enemy.	Clear of blame.
Ashamed of his dulness.	Close to a person or thing.
Assessed at Rs. 40 a year.	Clothed in purple.
Assiduous in his studies.	, with shame.
Associated with a person.	Clumsy at cricket.
, in some business.	Co-equal with another person.
Assured of the truth.	Co-eval with some other event.
Astonished at his rudeness.	Cognisant of a truth.
astonishing to a person.	Collateral with something else.
Averse to head work.	Commemorative of a victory.
Aware of his intentions.	Commensurate with one's desires.
Backward in his books.	Committed to a course of action.
Bare of grass.	Common to several persons or things.
Based on sound principles.	Comparable to something else.
Befooled into a trap.	Compatible with one's temper.
Beholden to a person.	Competent for certain work.
Bent on doing something.	Complaisant to a person.
Bereft of a child.	Compliant with one's wishes.
Beset with difficulties.	Composed of a material.
Betrayed to the enemy.	Compounded with something else.
, into the enemy's hands.	Concerned at or about some mishap.
Bigoted in his opinions.	, for a person's welfare.
Blessed with good health.	, in some business.
, in his children.	Conclusive of some fact.
Blind to his own faults.	Condemned to death.
, of one eye.	Conditional on something happening.
Boastful of his wealth.	Conducive to success.
Born of rich parents.	Confident of success.
, in England.	Confirmed in a habit.
Bought of a person.	Conformable to reason.
Bound in honour.	Congenial to one's tastes.
, by a contract.	Congratulated on his success.
(Ship) bound for England.	Conscious of a fault.
Busy with his lessons.	Consequent on some cause.
Calculus to suffering.	Consistent with honesty.
Capable of improvement.	Conspicuous for honesty.
Careful of his money.	Contemporary with a person or event.
, about his dress.	

Contemptible for his meanness.	Disgusted at or with a person.
Contented with a little.	Dismayed at a result.
Contiguous to anything.	Displeased with a person.
Contingent (conditional) on success.	Disqualified for a post.
Contrary to rule.	from competing.
Contrasted with something else.	Distinct from something else.
Conversant with persons or things.	Distracted with pain.
Convicted of a crime.	Distrustful of a man's motives.
Convinced of a fact.	Divested of office.
Convulsed with laughter.	Doubtful or dubious of success.
Correct in a statement.	Due to some cause.
Coupled with something else.	Dull of understanding.
Covetous of other men's goods.	Eager for distinction.
Creditable to his judgment.	in the pursuit of knowledge.
Cured of a disease.	Earnest in his endeavours.
Customary for a person.	Easy of access.
Deaf to entreaties.	Economical of time.
Debited with a sum of money.	Educated in law.
Defeated of his purpose.	for the bar.
Defective in point of style.	Effective for a purpose.
Deficient in energy.	Eligible for employment.
Defrauded of his earnings.	Eminent for his learning.
Deleterious to health.	Employed in gardening.
Delighted with success.	Empty of its contents.
Dependent on a person or thing.	Emulous of fame.
Depleted of strength.	Enamoured with a person.
Deprived of some good thing.	of a thing.
Derogatory to his character.	Endeared to all men.
Descriptive of a place.	Endowed } with natural ability.
Deserving of praise.	Endued } with natural ability.
Designed for a purpose.	Engaged to some person.
Desirous of success.	in some business.
Despondent of success.	Engraved on the memory.
Destined for the bar.	Enraged at something done.
Destitute of money.	Entailed on a person.
Destuctive of health.	Entangled in a plot.
Determined on doing a thing.	Entitled to a hearing.
Detrimental to health.	Envolved in mist.
Devoid of foundation.	Envious of another's success.
Dexterous in or at doing something.	Equal to the occasion.
Different from something else.	Essential to happiness.
Dissident of success.	Estranged from a friend.
Diligent in business.	Even with a rival.
Disappointed of a thing not obtained.	Exclusive of certain items.
, in a thing obtained.	Exempted or exempt from fine.
, with a person.	Exhausted with labour.
Disastrous to a person, etc.	Exonerated from blame.
Disgusted with a thing.	Exposed to danger.
	Expressive of his feelings.

Faithful <i>to</i> a master.	Illustrative of a subject.
False <i>of</i> heart.	Imbued <i>with</i> confidence.
,, <i>to</i> his friends.	Imitative <i>of</i> a master.
Familiar <i>with</i> a language.	Immaterial <i>to</i> the point.
,, (well known) <i>to</i> a person.	Immersed <i>in</i> thought.
Famous <i>for</i> his learning.	Impatient <i>of</i> reproof.
Fascinated <i>with</i> a person or thing.	,, <i>at</i> an event.
Fatal <i>to</i> his prospects.	,, <i>for</i> food.
Fatigued <i>with</i> travelling.	Impending <i>over</i> one's head.
Favourable <i>to</i> his prospects.	Impenetrable <i>to</i> heat.
,, <i>for</i> action.	Imperative <i>on</i> a person.
Fearful <i>of</i> consequences.	Impertinent <i>to</i> his master.
Fertile <i>in</i> resources.	Impervious <i>to</i> water.
Fit <i>for</i> a position.	Implicated <i>in</i> a crime.
Flushed <i>with</i> victory.	Incidental <i>to</i> a journey.
Foiled <i>in</i> an attempt.	Inclined <i>to</i> laziness.
Fond <i>of</i> music.	Inclusive <i>of</i> extras.
Foreign <i>to</i> the purpose.	Incumbent <i>on</i> a person.
Founded <i>on</i> fact.	Indebted <i>to</i> a person.
Fraught <i>with</i> danger.	,, <i>for</i> some kindness.
Free <i>from</i> blame.	,, <i>in</i> a large sum.
Fruitful <i>in</i> resources.	Independent <i>of</i> his parents.
Fruitless <i>of</i> results.	Indicative <i>of</i> his motives.
Full <i>of</i> persons or things.	Indifferent <i>to</i> heat or cold.
Gifted <i>with</i> abilities.	Indigenous <i>to</i> a country.
Glad <i>of</i> his assistance.	Indignant <i>at</i> something done.
,, <i>at</i> a result.	,, <i>with</i> a person.
Glutted <i>with</i> commodities.	Indispensable <i>to</i> success.
Good <i>for</i> nothing.	Indulgent <i>in</i> wine.
,, <i>at</i> cricket.	,, <i>to</i> his children.
Grateful <i>for</i> past kindness.	Infatuated <i>with</i> a person.
Greedy <i>of</i> or <i>after</i> riches.	Infected <i>with</i> smallpox.
Guilty <i>of</i> theft.	Infested <i>with</i> rats.
Gulled <i>of</i> his money.	Inflicted <i>on</i> a person.
Hardened <i>against</i> pity.	Informed <i>of</i> a fact.
,, <i>to</i> misfortune.	Infused <i>into</i> a mixture.
Healed <i>of</i> a disease.	Inherent <i>in</i> his disposition.
Heedless <i>of</i> consequences.	Inimical <i>to</i> a person.
Held <i>in</i> high esteem.	Innocent <i>of</i> a charge.
Honest <i>in</i> his dealings.	Insatiable <i>of</i> learning.
Honoured <i>with</i> your friendship.	Insensible <i>to</i> shame.
Hopeful <i>of</i> success.	Inspired <i>with</i> hope.
Horified <i>at</i> the sight.	Intent <i>on</i> his studies.
Hostile <i>to</i> my endeavours.	Interested <i>in</i> a person or thing.
Hungry <i>after</i> wealth.	Intimate <i>with</i> a person.
Hurtful <i>to</i> health.	Introduced <i>to</i> a person.
Identical <i>with</i> anything.	,, <i>into</i> a place.
Ignorant <i>of</i> English.	Inured <i>to</i> hardships.
Ill <i>with</i> fever.	Inveigled <i>into</i> a plot.
	Invested <i>with</i> full powers.
	,, <i>in</i> government paper.
	Involved <i>in</i> difficulties.

Irrelevant to the question.	Offensive to a person.
Irrespective of consequences.	Officious in his attentions.
Jealous of his reputation.	Ominous of ruin.
Lame of one leg.	Open to flattery.
Lavish of money.	Opposed to facts.
" in his expenditure.	Opposite to a place.
Lax in his morals.	Overcome with sorrow.
Level with the ground.	Overwhelmed with grief.
Liable to error.	
" for payment.	Painful to one's feeling.
Liberal of his advice.	Parallel to or with anything.
Lightened of a burden.	Paramount to everything else.
Limited to a certain area.	Partial to the youngest son.
Lost to all sense of shame.	Patient of suffering.
Loyal to the government.	Peculiar to a person or thing.
Mad with disappointment.	Penitent for a fault.
Made for a teacher.	Penurious in his habits.
" of iron.	Pertinent to a question.
Material to success.	Polite in manner.
Meet for a rich man.	" to strangers.
Mindful of his promise.	Poor in spirit.
Mistaken for a traveller.	Popular with schoolfellows.
Mistrustful of a person.	" for his pluck.
Moved to tears.	Possessed of wealth.
" with pity.	" with a notion.
" at the sight.	Precious to a person.
" by entreaties.	Precluded from doing a thing.
Natural to a person.	Pre-eminent above the rest.
Necessary to happiness.	" in cleverness.
Neglectful of his interests.	Preferable to something else.
Negligent of duty.	Prefixed to a title-deed.
" in his work.	Prejudicial to his interests.
Notorious for his misdeeds.	Preliminary to an inquiry.
Obedient to parents.	Preparatory to an inquiry.
Obligatory on a person.	Prepared for the worst.
Obliged to a person.	Preventive to fever (adj.).
" for some kindness.	(A) preventive of fever (noun).
Oblivious of the past.	Previous to some event.
Obnoxious to a person.	Prodigal of expenditure.
Observant of facts.	Productive of wealth.
Obstinate in his resistance.	Proficient in mathematics.
Obstructive to a project.	Profitable to an investor.
Occupied with some work.	Profuse of his money.
" in reading a book.	" in his offers.
Odious to a person.	Prone to idleness.
Offended with a person.	Proper for the occasion.
" at something done.	Prophetic of evil.
	Proud of his position.
	Provident of his money.
	" for his children.
	Purged of evil thoughts.
	Pursuant to an inquiry.

Qualified <i>for</i> teaching music.	Shocked <i>at</i> your behaviour.
Quarrelsome <i>with</i> every one.	Shocking <i>to</i> every one.
Quartered <i>on</i> the town.	Short <i>of</i> money.
Quick <i>of</i> understanding.	Sick <i>of</i> waiting.
, <i>at</i> mathematics.	Significant <i>of</i> his intentions.
Radiant <i>with</i> smiles.	Silent <i>about</i> a subject.
Ready <i>for</i> action.	Similar <i>to</i> a person or thing.
, <i>at</i> accounts.	Simultaneous <i>with</i> an event.
, <i>in</i> his answers.	Skilful <i>in</i> doing a thing.
Receptive <i>of</i> advice.	Slothful <i>in</i> business.
Reckless <i>of</i> expenditure.	Slow <i>of</i> hearing.
Reconciled <i>to</i> a position.	, <i>in</i> making up his mind.
, <i>with</i> an opponent.	, <i>at</i> accounts.
Redolent <i>of</i> smoke.	Solicitous <i>of</i> a reply.
Reduced <i>to</i> poverty.	, <i>for</i> your safety.
Regardless <i>of</i> consequences.	Sorry <i>for</i> your sufferings.
Related <i>to</i> a person.	Sparing <i>of</i> praise.
Relative <i>to</i> a question.	Spiteful <i>against</i> a person.
Relevant <i>to</i> the point.	Stained <i>with</i> crimes.
Remiss <i>in</i> his duties.	Startled <i>at</i> a sight.
Remote <i>from</i> one's intentions.	Steeped <i>in</i> vice.
Repentant <i>of</i> his sin.	Strange <i>to</i> a person.
Replete <i>with</i> comfort.	Subject <i>to</i> authority.
Repugnant <i>to</i> his wishes.	Subordinate <i>to</i> a person.
Repulsive <i>to</i> his feelings.	Subsequent <i>to</i> another event.
Requisite <i>to</i> happiness.	Subsidiary <i>to</i> trade.
, <i>for</i> a purpose.	Subversive <i>of</i> discipline.
Resolved <i>into</i> its elements.	Sufficient <i>for</i> a purpose.
, <i>on</i> doing a thing.	Suitable <i>to</i> the occasion.
Respectful <i>to</i> or <i>towards</i> one's superiors.	, <i>for</i> his income.
Responsible <i>to</i> a person.	Suited <i>to</i> the occasion.
, <i>for</i> his actions.	, <i>for</i> a post.
Restricted <i>to</i> a humble fare.	Sure <i>of</i> success.
Retentive <i>of</i> figures.	Suspicious <i>of</i> his meaning.
Revenge <i>on</i> a person for doing something.	Sympathetic <i>with</i> sufferers.
Rich <i>in</i> house property.	Synonymous <i>with</i> another word.
Rid <i>of</i> trouble.	Tantamount <i>to</i> a falsehood.
Sacred <i>to</i> a man's memory.	Temperate <i>in</i> his habits.
Sanguine <i>of</i> success.	Tenacious <i>of</i> his purpose.
Satiated <i>with</i> pleasure.	Thankful <i>for</i> past favours.
Satisfactory <i>to</i> a person.	Tired <i>of</i> doing nothing.
Satisfied <i>of</i> (concerning) a fact.	, <i>with</i> his exertions.
, <i>with</i> his income.	Transported <i>with</i> joy.
Secure <i>from</i> harm.	True <i>to</i> his convictions.
, <i>against</i> an attack.	Uneasy <i>about</i> consequences.
Sensible <i>of</i> kindness.	Useful <i>for</i> a certain purpose.
Sensitive <i>to</i> blame.	Vain <i>of</i> his fine dress.
Serviceable <i>to</i> a person.	Veiled <i>in</i> mystery.
	Versed <i>in</i> Euclid.

Vested in a person.	Weak of understanding.
Vexed with a person for doing	„ in his head.
„ at a thing. [something.]	Weary of doing nothing.
Victorious over difficulties.	Welcome to my house.
Void of meaning.	Worthy of praise.
Wanting in common sense.	Zealous for improvement.
Wary of telling secrets.	„ in a cause.
(c) Verbs followed by Prepositions.	
Abide by a promise.	Arrive at a place.
Abound in or with fish.	„ in a country.
Absolve of or from a charge.	Ascribe to a cause.
Abstain from wine.	Ask for a thing.
Accede to a request.	„ of or from a person.
Accept of a favour.	Aspire after worldly greatness.
Accord with or to a thing.	„ to some particular object.
Account for a fact.	Assent to your terms.
Accuse to a person.	Associate with a person or thing.
Accuse of some misdeed.	Assure a person of a fact.
Acquiesce in a decision.	Atoned for a fault.
Acquit of blame.	Attain to a high place.
Adapt to circumstances.	Attend to a book or speaker.
Adhere to a plan.	„ on a person.
Admit of an excuse.	Attribute to a cause.
„ to or into a secret.	Avail oneself of an offer.
Admonish of a fault.	Avenge oneself on a person.
Agree to a proposal.	Avert from a person.
„ with a person.	Balk any one of his object.
Aim at a mark.	Bark at a person or thing.
Alight from a carriage.	Bask in sunshine.
„ on the ground.	Bear with a man's impatience.
Allot to a person.	Beat against the rocks (the waves).
Allow of delay.	„ on one's head (the sun).
Allude to a fact.	Become of you (what will ?).
Alternate with something else.	Beg pardon of a person.
Anchor off the shore.	„ a person to do a thing.
Animadvert on his faults.	„ for something from some one.
Answer to a person.	Begin with the first.
„ for conduct.	Beguile a person of a thing.
Apologise to a person.	Believe in one's honesty.
„ for rudeness.	Belong to a person.
Appeal to a person.	Bequeath a thing to a person.
„ for redress or help.	Bestow a thing on a person.
„ against a sentence.	Bethink oneself of something.
Apply to a person for a thing.	Beware of wine.
Appoint to a situation.	Blame a person for something.
Apprise of a fact.	Blush at one's own faults.
Approve of an action.	„ for any one who is at fault.
Arbitrate between two persons.	Boast or brag of one's cleverness.
Argue with a person for or against	Border on a place.
a point.	

Borrow <i>of</i> or <i>from</i> a person.	Communicate a thing <i>to</i> a person.
Break <i>into</i> a house (thieves).	,, <i>with</i> a person <i>on</i> a subject.
,, <i>oneself of</i> a habit.	Compare <i>similar</i> s <i>with</i> <i>similar</i> s—
,, <i>through</i> restraint.	as one fruit <i>with</i> another.
,, <i>ill news to</i> a person.	,, <i>things dissimilar</i> , by way of illustration — as genius <i>to</i> a lightning flash.
,, <i>(dissolve partnership) with</i> a person.	Compensate a person <i>for</i> his loss.
Bring a thing <i>to</i> light.	Compete <i>with</i> a person <i>for</i> a prize.
,, <i>under</i> notice.	Complain <i>of</i> some annoyance <i>to</i> a person.
Brood <i>over</i> past grievances.	,, <i>against</i> a person.
Burden an animal <i>with</i> a load.	Comply <i>with</i> one's wishes.
Burst <i>into</i> a rage. [country.	Conceal facts <i>from</i> any one.
,, <i>upon</i> (suddenly invade) a	Concede to some demand.
Buy a thing <i>of</i> a person.	Concur <i>with</i> a person.
,, <i>from</i> a shop.	,, <i>in</i> an opinion.
Calculate <i>on</i> success.	Condemn a person <i>to</i> death.
Call <i>on</i> a person (visit him at his house).	,, <i>for</i> murder.
,, <i>to</i> (shout to) a person.	Condole <i>with</i> a person.
,, <i>for</i> (require) punishment.	Conduce <i>to</i> happiness.
Canvass <i>for</i> votes. [or thing.	Confer (<i>Trans.</i>) a thing <i>on</i> any one.
Care <i>for</i> (attach value to) a person.	,, (<i>Intrans.</i>) <i>with</i> a person <i>about</i> something.
Carp <i>at</i> one's conduct.	Confess <i>to</i> a fault.
Catch <i>at</i> an opportunity.	Confide (<i>Trans.</i>) a secret <i>to</i> any one.
Caution a person <i>against</i> a danger.	,, (<i>Intrans.</i>) <i>in</i> one's honour.
Cavil <i>at</i> a word or deed.	Conform <i>to</i> (follow) a rule.
Cease <i>from</i> quarrelling.	,, <i>with</i> one's views.
Censure a man <i>for</i> a fault.	Confront a man <i>with</i> his accusers.
Certify <i>to</i> a man's character.	Congratulate a man <i>on</i> his success.
Chafe <i>at</i> or <i>under</i> rebuke.	Connive <i>at</i> other men's faults.
Challenge a man <i>to</i> combat.	Consent <i>to</i> some proposal.
Charge a man <i>with</i> a crime.	Consign <i>to</i> destruction.
,, <i>payment to</i> a person.	Consist <i>of</i> materials.
Cheat a man <i>of</i> his due.	,, <i>in</i> facts or results.
Clamour <i>for</i> higher wages.	Consult <i>with</i> a person <i>on</i> or <i>about</i> some matter.
Clash <i>with</i> one's meaning.	Contend <i>with</i> or <i>against</i> a person.
Cleanse <i>from</i> stain.	,, <i>for</i> or <i>about</i> a thing.
Clear a man <i>of</i> blame.	Contribute <i>to</i> a fund.
Cling <i>to</i> a person or thing.	Converge <i>to</i> a point.
Close <i>with</i> (accept) an offer.	Converse <i>with</i> a person <i>about</i> a thing.
Coalesce <i>with</i> something else.	Convict a person <i>of</i> a crime.
Coincide <i>with</i> one's opinion.	Convince a person <i>of</i> a fact.
Combat <i>with</i> difficulties.	Cope <i>with</i> a person.
Come <i>across</i> (accidentally meet) any one.	Correspond <i>with</i> a person (<i>write</i>).
,, <i>into</i> fashion.	
,, <i>by</i> (obtain) a thing.	
,, <i>of</i> (result from) something.	
,, <i>to</i> (amount to) forty.	
Commence <i>with</i> a thing.	
Comment <i>on</i> a matter.	

Correspond to something (agree).	Die by violence.
Count on a thing (confidently expect).	Differ with a person on a subject.
Count for nothing.	,, from anything (to be unlike).
Crave for or after happiness.	Digress from the point.
Credit with good intentions.	Dilate on a subject.
Crow over a defeated rival.	Dip into a book.
Cure a man of a disease.	Disable one from doing something.
Cut a thing in or to pieces.	Disabuse one's mind of error.
,, " in half.	Disagree with a person or thing.
Dabble in politics.	Disapprove of anything.
Dally with a person.	Dispense with a man's services.
Dash against anything.	Dispose of (sell) property.
,, over anything.	Dispute with a person about anything.
Dawn on a person.	Disseize (dispossess) of an estate.
Deal well or ill by a person.	Dissent from an opinion.
,, in (trade in) cloth, tea, spices, etc.	Dissuade from an action.
,, with a person (have dealings in trade, etc.).	Distinguish one thing from another.
,, with a subject (write about it).	between two things.
Debar from doing anything.	Divert a person from a purpose.
Debit with a sum of money.	Divest one's mind of fear.
Decide on something.	Divide in half, into four parts.
,, against something.	Doat upon a person or thing.
Declare for something.	Domineer over one's inferiors.
,, against something.	Draw money on a bank.
Defend a person from harm.	Dream of strange things.
Defer to a man's wishes.	Drive at some point.
Defraud a person of his due.	Drop off a tree.
Deliberate on a matter.	,, out of the ranks.
Delight in music.	Dwell on a subject.
Deliver from some evil.	Eat into iron.
Deluge with water.	Elicit from a person.
Demand a thing of a person.	Embark on board ship.
Deny to a statement.	,, in business.
Depend on a person or thing.	Emerge from the forest.
Deprive a person of a thing.	Employ in a work.
Derogate from one's reputation.	Encroach on one's authority.
Descent on a subject.	Endow a hospital with an estate.
Desist from an attempt.	Enjoin on a person.
Despair of success.	Enlarge on a subject.
Despoil a person of a thing.	Enlist in the army.
Deter a person from a thing.	,, a person in some project.
Determine on doing something.	Entail labour on a person.
Detract from one's reputation.	Enter upon a career.
Deviate from a certain course.	,, into one's plans.
Devolves on a person (a duty).	Entitle any one to an estate.
Die of a disease.	Entrust anyone with a thing.
,, from some cause, as overwork.	,, a thing to anyone.
	Err on the side of leniency.

Escape from jail.	Grieve at or for or about an event.
Exact payment from a person.	„ for a person.
Excel in languages.	Grow upon one = (a habit grows on, etc.).
Exchange one thing for another.	Grumble at one's lot.
„ with a person.	Guard against a bad habit.
Exclude from an examination.	Guess at something.
Excuse a person from coming.	
Exempt a person from a rule.	
Exonerate a person from blame.	Hanker after riches.
Expatriate on a subject.	Happen to a person.
Explain to a person.	Heal of a disease.
Expostulate with a person.	Hear of an event.
Exult in a victory over a rival.	Hesitate at nothing.
	Hide a thing from a person.
Fail in an attempt.	Hinder one from doing something.
„ of a purpose.	Hinge on (depend on) some event.
Fail among thieves.	Hint at an intention.
„ in love with a person.	Hope for something.
„ in with one's views.	Hover over a nest.
„ on the enemy (attack).	Hunt after or for anything.
„ into a mistake.	
„ under some one's displeasure.	Identify one person or thing with another.
Fawn on a person.	Impart a thing to a person.
Feed (Intrans.) on grass.	Impend over one's head.
(Trans.) a cow with grass.	Import goods into a country.
Feel for a person in his trouble.	„ things from a country.
Fight for the weak against the strong.	Impose on (deceive) a person.
„ with or against a person.	Impress an idea on a person.
Fill with anything.	„ a person with an idea.
(full of something). (Adject.)	Impute blame to a person.
Fire on a city.	Incite a person to some action.
Fish for compliments.	Increase in wisdom.
Flirt with a person.	Inculcate on a person.
Fly at (attack) a dog.	Indent on an office for stamps.
„ into a rage.	Indict a person for a crime.
Free or from anything.	Indorse with a signature.
Furnish a person with a thing.	Indulge in wine.
„ a thing to a person.	„ oneself with wine.
	Infir one fact from another.
Gain on some one in a race.	Inflict punishment on a man.
Get at (find out) the facts.	Inform a person of a thing.
„ over (recover from) an illness.	„ against a person.
„ on with a person (live or work smoothly with him).	Infringe on a man's rights.
„ out of debt.	Infuse an ingredient into some mixture.
„ to a journey's end.	Initiate a man into an order.
Glance at an object.	Inquire into a matter.
„ over a letter.	„ of a person about or concerning some matter.
Glory in success.	Insist on something being done.
Grapple with difficulties.	Inspire a man with courage.
Grasp at something unattainable.	

Instil a thing *into* the mind.
 Intercede *with* a superior for some one else.
 Interfere *with* a person *in* some matter.
 Intermeddle *with* other men's affairs.
 Intersect *with* each other.
 Intrude *on* a man's rights.
 Intrigue *with* the opposite party.
 Introduce a man *to* some one. *into* a place or sect.
 Intrude *on* one's leisure. *into* one's house.
 Intrust a person *with* a thing. *a thing to* a person.
 Inveigh *against* injustice.
 Inveigle *into* a trap.
 Invest money *in* some project. *a man with* authority.
 Invite a man *to* dinner.
 Involve a man *in* debt.
 Issue *from* some source.
 Jar *against* one's nerves.
 Jeer *at* a person.
 Jest *at* (make fun of) a person.
 Join *in* a game. *one thing to* another.
 Judge of something *by* something
 Jump *at* (eagerly accept) an offer. *to* a conclusion.
 Keep (abstain) *from* wine. *to* a point.
 Kick *against* (resist) authority. *at* a thing (scornfully reject).
 Knock one's head *against* a wall. *at* a door.
 Know *of* a person.
 Labour *under* a misapprehension,
 for the public good.
 in a good cause.
 at some work.
 Lament *for* the dead.
 Languish *for* home.
 Lapse *into* idleness.
 Laugh *at* a person or thing. *to* scorn.
 Lay facts *before* a person. *a sin to* one's charge.

Lay a person *under* an obligation.
 Lead to Calcutta (a road).
 Lean *against* a wall.
 on a staff.
 to a certain opinion.
 Lecture a person *on* some fault.
 Level a city *with* the ground.
 a gun at a bird.
 Lie *in* one's power.
 under an imputation.
 Light *on* a person or object.
 Listen to complaints.
 for a discordant note.
 Live *for* riches or fame.
 by honest labour.
 on a small income.
 within one's means.
 Long *for* or *after* anything.
 Look *after* (watch) some business.
 at a person or thing.
 into (closely examine) a matter.
 for something lost.
 over (examine cursorily) an account.
 through (examine carefully) an account.
 out of a place.
 Lust *after* riches.
 Make *away with* (purloin) money.
 for (conduce to) happiness.
 up to (approach) a person.
 some meaning of a thing.
 March *with* (border on) a boundary.
 Marry one person *to* another.
 Marvel *at* some sight or report.
 Match one thing *with* another.
 Meddle *with* other men's business.
 Meditate *on* some subject.
 Meet *with* a rebuff.
 Menace *with* punishment.
 Merge *into* anything.
 Minister *to* other men's wants.
 Mortgage land *to* a pleader.
 Mourn *for* the dead.
 Murmur *at* or *against* anything.
 Muse *upon* the beauties of nature.
 Object *to* some proposal.
 Occur *to* one's mind.

Offend <i>against</i> good taste.	Prevail <i>against</i> or <i>over</i> an adversary.
Officiate <i>for</i> some one <i>in</i> a post.	„ <i>with</i> a person (have more influence than anything else).
Operate <i>on</i> a patient.	Prevent <i>from</i> going.
Originate <i>in</i> a thing or place.	Prey <i>upon</i> one's health.
„ <i>with</i> a person.	Pride oneself <i>on</i> a thing.
Overwhelm <i>with</i> kindness.	Proceed <i>with</i> a business already commenced.
Pall <i>upon</i> one's taste.	„ <i>to</i> a business not yet commenced.
Part <i>with</i> a person or thing.	„ <i>from</i> one point <i>to</i> another.
Partake <i>of</i> some food.	„ <i>against</i> (prosecute) a person.
Participate <i>with</i> a person <i>in</i> his gains.	Prohibit <i>from</i> doing something.
Pass <i>from</i> one thing <i>into</i> another.	Protect <i>from</i> harm.
„ <i>for</i> a clever man.	Protest <i>against</i> injustice.
„ <i>over</i> (omit) a page.	Provide <i>for</i> one's children.
„ <i>by</i> a man's door.	„ <i>against</i> the evil day.
Pay (suffer) <i>for</i> one's folly.	„ oneself <i>with</i> something.
Penetrate <i>into</i> a secret.	Provoke one <i>to</i> anger.
Perish <i>by</i> the sword.	Pry <i>into</i> a secret.
„ <i>with</i> cold.	Punish any one <i>for</i> a fault.
Persevere <i>in</i> an effort.	Purge the mind <i>of</i> false notions.
Persist <i>in</i> doing something.	Quake <i>with</i> fear.
Pertain <i>to</i> a question.	Qualify oneself <i>for</i> a post.
Pine <i>for</i> a lost child.	Quarrel <i>with</i> some one <i>over</i> or <i>about</i> something.
Pitch <i>upon</i> a plan.	Quote something <i>from</i> an author.
Play <i>at</i> cricket.	Rail <i>at</i> or <i>against</i> any one.
„ <i>upon</i> the guitar.	Reason <i>with</i> a person <i>about</i> something.
„ <i>tricks (trifle) with</i> one's health.	Rebel <i>against</i> authority.
Plead <i>with</i> a creditor <i>for</i> longer time.	Reckon <i>on</i> (confidently expect) something.
Plot <i>against</i> a man.	„ <i>with</i> (settle) accounts with a person.
Plunge <i>into</i> a river, work, etc.	Recoil <i>from</i> a sight.
Point <i>at</i> a person.	Recompense one <i>for</i> some service.
„ <i>to</i> some result.	Reconcile <i>to</i> a loss.
Ponder <i>on</i> or <i>over</i> a subject.	„ <i>with</i> an adversary.
Possess oneself <i>of</i> an estate.	Recover <i>from</i> an illness.
Pounce <i>on</i> a thing.	Refer <i>to</i> a subject.
Pray <i>for</i> pardon.	Reflect credit <i>on</i> a person.
Predicate hardness <i>of</i> iron.	„ (<i>Intrans.</i>) <i>on</i> a man's conduct.
Prefer one thing <i>to</i> another.	Refrain <i>from</i> tears.
Prejudice any one <i>against</i> some person or thing.	Rejoice <i>at</i> the success of another.
Prepare <i>for</i> the worst.	„ <i>in</i> one's own success.
„ <i>against</i> disaster.	
Present anyone <i>with</i> a book.	
Preserve <i>from</i> harm.	
Preside <i>at</i> a meeting.	
„ <i>over</i> a meeting.	
Presume <i>on</i> a man's kindness.	
Pretend <i>to</i> omniscience.	
Prevail <i>on</i> (persuade) a person <i>to</i> do something.	

Relapse *into* idleness.
 Relieve *of* or *from* pain.
 Rely *on* a person or thing.
 Remind a person *of* a thing.
 Remonstrate *with* a person *against* some proceeding.
 Render (translate) *into* English.
 Repent *of* imprudence.
 Repine *at* misfortune.
 Repose (*Intrans.*) *on* a bed.
 " confidence *in* a person.
 Reprimand a person *for* a fault.
 Require something *of* some one.
 Resolve *on* a course of action.
 Rest *on* a couch, *on* facts, etc.
 (It) rests *with* a person *to do*, etc.
 Result *from* a cause.
 " *in* a consequence.
 Retaliate *on* an enemy.
 Revel *in* vice.
 Revenge myself *on* some one *for* some injury.
 Revert *to* an appointment.
 Revolt *against* a government.
 Reward a man *with* something *for* some service done.
 Ride *at* anchor.
 Rob a person *of* something.
 Rule *over* a country.
 Run *after* (eagerly follow) new fashions.
 " *at* (attack) a cat.
 " *into* debt.
 " *over* (read rapidly) an account.
 " *through* his money.
 Save a person or thing *from* harm.
 Scoff *at* religion.
 Search *for* something lost.
 " *into* (carefully examine) a matter.
 See *about* (consider) a matter.
 " *into* (investigate) a matter.
 " *through* (understand) his meaning.
 " *to* (attend to) a matter.
 Seek *after* or *for* happiness.
 Send *for* a doctor.
 Sentence a man *to* a fine.
 Set *about* (begin working *at*) a business.

Set a person *over* (in charge of) a business.
 " *upon* (attack) a traveller.
 Settle some money *on* a daughter.
 Show a person *over* a house.
 Shudder *at* cruelty.
 Side *with* a person *in* a dispute.
 Sit *over* a fire.
 " *under* an imputation.
 Slur *over* a matter.
 Smack *of* a certain flavour.
 Smart *under* a sense of wrong.
 Smell *of* fish.
 Smile *at* (deride) a person's threats.
 " *on* (favour) a person.
 Snap *at* a person.
 Snatch *at* (try to seize) a thing.
 Speak *of* a subject (briefly).
 " *on* a subject (at greater length).
 Speculate *in* shares.
 " *on* a possible future.
 Stand *against* (resist) an enemy.
 " *by* (support) a friend.
 " *on* one's dignity.
 " *to* (maintain) one's opinion.
 Stare *at* a person.
 " *in* a person *in* the face.
 Start *for* Calcutta.
 Stick *at* nothing.
 " *to* his point.
 Stipulate *for* certain terms.
 Stoop *to* meanness.
 Strike *at* (aim a blow *at*) a dog.
 " *for* higher pay.
 " *on* a rock.
 Strip a person *of* his property.
 Struggle *against* difficulties.
 Subject a person *to* censure.
 Submit *to* authority.
 Subscribe *to* a fund.
 Subsist *on* scanty food.
 Succeed *to* a property.
 " *in* an undertaking.
 Succumb *to* difficulties.
 Sue *for* peace.
 Supply a thing *to* a person.
 " *with* a person *with* a thing.
 Surrender *to* the enemy.
 Sweep the dirt *off* the floor.
 Sympathise *with* a person *in* his troubles.

Take <i>after</i> (resemble) his father.	Trust in a person.
,, a person <i>for</i> a spy.	„ to a man's honesty. } (Intr.)
,, <i>to</i> (commence the habit of) gambling.	„ a man with money. (Trans.)
Talk <i>of</i> or <i>about</i> an event.	Turn verse <i>into</i> prose.
,, <i>over</i> (discuss) a matter.	„ to a friend <i>for</i> help.
,, <i>to</i> or <i>with</i> a person.	„ <i>upon</i> (hinge on) evidence.
Tamper <i>with</i> statistics.	
Taste <i>of</i> salt.	Upbraid a person <i>with</i> ingratitude.
Tell <i>of</i> or <i>about</i> an event.	Urge a fact <i>on</i> one's attention.
Testify <i>to</i> a fact.	
Think <i>of</i> or <i>about</i> anything.	Venture <i>upon</i> an undertaking.
,, <i>over</i> (consider) a matter.	Vie <i>with</i> another person.
Threaten a man <i>with</i> a lawsuit.	Vote <i>for</i> (in favour of) anything.
Throw a stone <i>at</i> anyone.	„ <i>against</i> a thing.
Tide <i>over</i> losses.	
Touch <i>at</i> Gibraltar (ships).	Wait <i>at</i> table.
,, <i>upon</i> (briefly allude to) a subject.	„ <i>for</i> a person or thing.
Tower <i>over</i> every one else.	„ <i>on</i> (attend) a person.
Trade <i>with</i> a country <i>in</i> oranges.	Warn a person <i>of</i> danger.
Trample <i>on</i> justice.	„ „ <i>against</i> a fault.
Treat <i>of</i> a subject.	Wink <i>at</i> one's faults.
Tremble <i>at</i> a lion <i>with</i> fear.	Wish <i>for</i> anything.
Trench <i>on</i> a man's rights.	Work <i>at</i> mathematics.
Trespass <i>against</i> rules.	„ <i>for</i> small pay.
,, <i>on</i> a man's time.	Worm oneself <i>into</i> another man's confidence.
,, <i>in</i> a man's house.	Wrestle <i>with</i> an adversary.
Trifle <i>with</i> a man's feelings.	
Triumph <i>over</i> obstacles.	Yearn <i>for</i> affection.
	Yield <i>to</i> clamour.

(d) *Adverbs followed by Prepositions.*

Note.—Adverbs are followed by the same prepositions as the corresponding adjectives.

Adversely <i>to</i> one's interests.	Independently <i>of</i> persons or things.
Agreeably <i>to</i> one's wishes.	Irrelevantly <i>to</i> a question.
Amenably <i>to</i> reason.	Irrespectively <i>of</i> consequences.
Angrily <i>with</i> a person.	Loyally <i>to</i> one's rulers.
Anxiously <i>for</i> one's safety.	Obstructively <i>to</i> happiness.
Appropriately <i>to</i> an occasion.	Offensively <i>to</i> a person.
Compatibly <i>with</i> reason.	Prejudicially <i>to</i> one's interests.
Conditionally <i>on</i> some event.	Previously <i>to</i> some event.
Conformably <i>to</i> reason.	Profitably <i>to</i> oneself.
Consistently <i>with</i> reason.	Proportionately <i>to</i> anything.
Contentedly <i>with</i> one's lot.	Simultaneously <i>with</i> some event.
Effectively <i>for</i> a purpose.	Subsequently <i>to</i> some event.
Favourably <i>to</i> one's interests.	Sufficiently <i>for</i> the purpose.
Fortunately <i>for</i> a person.	

421. The following examples show what the meaning

of a verb is, when it stands alone, and how its meaning is modified when a preposition is added to it:—

Admit.—I do not admit (accept) the excuse. This matter admits of no excuse (is such that it cannot be excused or pardoned).

Attend.—He attends (goes to) the meeting. He attends to the meeting (gives his mind to the business of the meeting).

Bear.—We must bear (endure, suffer) his reproaches. We must bear with (endure patiently, tolerate) his reproaches.

Begin.—Let us begin this song (commence to sing it). Let us begin with this song (sing this song before we sing any other).

Believe.—I do not believe this man (accept his statement as true). I do not believe in this man (trust in his honesty).

Call.—I will call him (shout to him and order him to come). I will call on him (visit him at his house).

Catch.—He caught (seized) the reins. He caught at (tried to seize) the reins.

Close.—This closes (finishes, concludes) the bargain. I cannot close with (accept) such a bargain.

Commence.—We must commence this work (begin to do it) to-day. We should commence with this work (do this work before doing any other).

Consult.—I must consult you (ask your advice) on this point. I must consult (take counsel) with you on this point.

Count.—Have you counted (reckoned up) the money? I count on that money (expect it as a certainty).

Deal.—He dealt (distributed) the cards. He dealt in (sold) cards and other kinds of games.

Dispense.—Dispense (distribute) your charities fairly all round. We can dispense with (we do not require) your charities.

Eat.—Do you ever eat cheese (take it as food). The mice are eating into the cheese (making a hole in it by eating).

Feel.—Feel this table (examine it by feeling or touching it). The blind man is feeling for the table (trying to find the table by groping for it with his hand).

Gain.—He gained the land (reached it safely). The sea is gaining on the land (washing it down) along this coast.

Grasp.—He grasped (seized and held tight) the money. He grasped at (attempted to seize) the money.

Guard.—Guard this man (protect him) from danger. Guard against (take every precaution against) this man.

Guess.—He guessed the facts (hit upon the facts by guess or conjecture). He guessed at the facts (made a guess or conjecture concerning them, tried to find them out by conjecture).

Inquire.—He inquired or enquired the reason (asked what was the reason). He inquired into the reason (investigated it by a careful examination of the evidence).

Meditate.—He meditates revenge (*future action*). He meditates on the revenge that he took (*past action*).

Meet.—I met him on the road (as I was walking on the road, I came in front of him). I met with him (found him) in the library.

Prepare.—He prepared (got ready) a feast. He prepared *for* the feast (got himself ready for it).

Repair.—Let us repair the house (put it into good repair). Let us repair (go) *to* the house.

Search.—Search that thief (examire his clothes and other belongings). Search *for* that thief (try to find out where he is).

See.—Do you not see (perceive) this danger? We must see *to* this danger (attend to it, and guard against it).

Send.—Send (despatch) the doctor at once. Send *for* the doctor (send some one to call the doctor).

Snatch.—He snatched the book (seized it by a rapid movement of the hand). He snatched *at* the book (attempted to seize it).

Strike.—He struck the dog. He struck *at* (aimed a blow at, or endeavoured to strike) the dog.

Taste.—He tasted the salt. This water tastes *of* (has a flavour of) salt.

Touch.—He has not yet touched the point (come to the point under debate). He touched *upon* the point (briefly alluded to it).

Work.—He worked (managed) the machine. He worked *at* (was busily engaged *with*) the machine.

Note.—Sometimes there is no appreciable difference of meaning between a verb standing alone and the same verb followed by a preposition. The following are examples:—

Accept, or accept *of*, a gift.

Attain, or attain *to*, perfection.

Beg, or beg *of*, a person to do something.

Confess, or confess *to*, a fault.

Enter, or enter *into*, a house.

Judge, or judge *of*, a person.

Join, or join *in*, a game.

Know, or know *of*, a fact.

Penetrate, or penetrate *into*, a secret.

Seek, or seek *for*, happiness.

Succeed, or succeed *to*, some one.

Treat, or treat *of*, a subject.

Insert prepositions or prepositional phrases:—

- 1.—1. I acquit you — all complicity — that crime; and hope you will be compensated — the annoyance entailed — you — the groundless imputation. 2. I was horrified — the sight — so much distress. 3. He did not die — cholera, but — the effects — over-exposure — the sun — an unhealthy time — the year. 4. This shopkeeper deals — grain, but he did not deal honestly — me, and I shall have no more dealings — him in future. 5. You will have to answer — me — your misconduct. 6. Forty students competed — one another — a single scholarship. 7. I must consult — you — that matter shortly. 8. Do not exult offensively — the victory you have won — your rival. 9. He is not possessed — much wisdom, but is possessed — a very high notion — his own importance. 10. Will you entrust me — that letter? No, I will entrust nothing — you. 11. Always be prepared — the worst. 12. That motive prevails — me. 13. I prevailed — him to make the attempt, but he could not prevail — his adversary. 14. I rejoiced not only — my own success, but — yours. 15. We must provide — our children — the evil day. 16. Some men

stick — nothing, so long as they can stick — their point. 17. Why do you stare me — the face? It is bad manners to stare — one in that manner. 18. The ship touched — Gibraltar. 19. He touched — the subject of tides. 20. He supplied money — the men; and they supplied his horses — provender. 21. He could smile — their threats; for fortune continued to smile — him. 22. They proceeded — the business that they had commenced yesterday, before they proceeded — the consideration of any new questions. 23. Do not live — riches, but whatever you live —, live — honest labour; and if you have to live — a small income, live — your means. 24. He is labouring — a misapprehension; but he thinks he is labouring — a good cause and — the public welfare. 25. He once laid me — an obligation, and therefore I am very unwilling to lay the blame of this affair — his charge. 26. He not only intruded — my house, but — my leisure; for I was engaged — that time — reading an interesting book. 27. The railways intersect — each other — this place. 28. Let me intercede — you — my friend. 29. I inquired — him — that matter. 30. He is impressed — that notion, and he desires to impress it — me.

II.—1. The river — which I went — my brother abounds — fish; we took a boat and rowed — the stream — the opposite bank. 2. He promised to abide — the contract, and they relied — his honour — its fulfilment. But they were disappointed — their hopes, and found they could never trust their work — him again. 3. He lives — small cost, and he does so — abstaining — every kind of luxury and accustoming himself — humble fare such as is suitable — a person — small income. 4. The person who stood — the judge yesterday was accused — throwing a stone — his neighbour's window; but nothing more came — the matter, and he was acquitted — the charge imputed — him. 5. A man — honour will adhere — his convictions, and act — a sense — duty, even if men rail — him and think him weak — understanding and wanting — common sense. 6. The intentions — that man admit — no doubt; we must agree — his terms, whether we approve — them or not, and there is no reason to be anxious — the result. 7. Aim — doing your duty — all risks, and do not be uneasy in mind — the consequences. 8. He was much alarmed — what he had just heard, and alluded — it as soon as he arrived — my house and alighted — his carriage. 9. The ship stopped a little way — the shore, and an experienced man was at once appointed — the post of pilot — bringing her — port. 10. He had a great affection — his parents, but he had no taste — hard work, and was not attentive — his studies. 11. One man complained — the magistrate — A's dishonesty; another brought a complaint — A — some debt; in fact, A has made many enemies — himself. 12. When you attend school, attend — your studies. What has been the cause — your idleness hitherto? Surely there was no just cause — such laziness. 13. He took advantage — my ignorance; but he gained no real advantage — me in the end. 14. I am vexed — him — what he has done. 15. A man is adapted — any occupation which

is adapted — his capacities. 16. I was annoyed — him — saying that; and I am not easily annoyed — trifles.

III.—1. Whatever you decide —, stick — it and do your best — difficulties. 2. I understand — all I hear that, though he despairs — success, nothing will deter him — his purpose. 3. I differ — you — the exact point — which dogs differ — wolves in shape or kind. But there is no difference of opinion — their comparative fierceness. 4. He is so weak that all food disagrees — him. Care must be taken that he does not die — weakness. 5. He was deprived — that very thing — which he delighted most. 6. I depended — his coming — four o'clock; but — all the hopes I had formed he deviated — his purpose and did nothing to defend me — injustice. 7. I disapprove — your way — working, and must therefore dispense — your services. 8. A blind man cannot distinguish light — darkness. Death does not distinguish — rich and poor. 9. I can divide this apple — two persons, but it is too small to be divided — forty; for it cannot be divided — forty parts. 10. When they had disposed — all their wares, there was a dispute — the profits, each man differing — the other. 11. Dissuade him — this folly, if you can; but I fear he is weak — his head — constant overwork and anxiety. 12. I will have nothing to do — a man, who tries to domineer — every one and cavils — everything which does not coincide — his own opinion. 13. More things are wrought — prayer than this world dreams —. 14. He dwells — a simple-minded people, — the Kalpi village, — the northern part — the district. 15. He dwelt — a long time — that subject; but no one really knew what he was driving —. 16. The magistrate's decision — that case was not in accordance — the evidence: we must appeal — a higher court, where perhaps this slur — our character will be removed. 17. He has an excellent appetite — his dinner, but no aspiration — anything higher. 18. The hill was veiled — a mist; and we were tired — waiting till the mist cleared off, besides being tired — our exertions. 19. I am reconciled — my opponent, but not — my losses. 20. He was disqualified — the post on account of age, but he was not disqualified — competing — a diploma. 21. It is better to be clothed — rags, than to be clothed — shame.

IV.—1. He embarked — board the steamer, which was to take him — India, where we intended to embark — some kind — trade. He was more popular than most men — the people of the country. 2. — some places the sea encroaches — the land; — others the land gains — the sea. This is so well known, that I need not expatiate — it any further. 3. As soon as he emerged — poverty, he entered — partnership — a man — wealth; and the two then entered — a grand commercial career. 4. I will exchange this book — you — another, if you have a good one to offer me — exchange. 5. He rejoiced — his success, and exulted — his fallen rival. 6. I am not familiar — that subject; so I cannot fall in — your views, or engage — this controversy any longer. 7. He fought — the robber — his life. The Spaniards

allied — the English fought — the French — what is called the Peninsular war. 8. While the cat was running — the mouse, the mouse ran — its hole and freed itself — danger. 9. Be so good as to furnish me — a copy of that letter. Furnish medicine — the sick. 10. A glance — this letter will convince you — its contents that he is grasping — your money. Every one will grieve — your loss. 11. He increased — wisdom — the increase of age, and at last grew — the follies of his boyhood and youth. Thus — degrees he rose — eminence — his profession. 12. A young man should be — his guard — bad company, and beware — falling — their evil ways. 13. He loitered — this place — the greater part — the day, sometimes leaning — the wall, and sometimes strolling — the opposite side — the street. 14. Madagascar is an island — the east coast of Africa. The French could not prevail — the inhabitants to surrender — an effort. 15. We must get rid — this difficult business at once. Let us inquire — the danger; and be ready — the evil day. 16. Your words are strange and quite — my comprehension. It is foolish to say what no one can understand, and I thought you were — such folly. 17. This leaves no stain — his character, and no further prejudice — him should be entertained, as he has now cleared himself — all the faults imputed — him. 18. I have no liking — that man; in fact, I have taken a decided dislike — him. For all that, I wish to deal fairly — him. 19. My relations — him are now quite friendly; and there is no ill-feeling left in relation — that dispute. 20. Did you beg pardon — the teacher? No; I do not like to entreat any one — mercy. 21. I cannot agree — you in this matter; and therefore I do not agree — your proposal. 22. I blush — my own fault more than I blush — your reputation. 23. Rhetoric might be compared — poetry. 24. I am — need — good advice, but there is no need — your reproaches. 25. There would be no use — my purchasing that article; for I have no use — it. 26. I have failed — my purpose because I failed — my first attempt, and was not allowed to make another. 27. He is invested — full authority from me to invest my money — that speculation. 28. He is profuse — his promises, but not at all profuse — his money.

V.—1. You must apologise — him — what you have done, even though the act was not done — any bad intention. 2. You will have to answer — your master — that mistake; and you may hope — pardon, if you ask — it — the proper way. 3. You can appeal — a higher court and apply — a fresh trial; but it will be wiser to appoint some man who is versed — such matters to act as arbitrator — you and the opposite party. 4. To continue arguing and disputing — a man, when you are certain that he will not assent — your own views, is not wise — you: men will only blame you — wasting your time, and ascribe your conduct — obstinacy. 5. While he was battling — the sea, the wind rose and the waves beat — the shore: he begged — help — those persons who were — the boat, and these pulled him up — the water. 6. I have bestowed great attention — that subject; and I bethought myself — one thing, namely, that a bridge must be built at once — the river, and that this bridge should be — iron, not —

wood or brick. 7. One man boasts — his wealth, another prides himself — his wisdom; we cannot help blushing — persons who are so wanting — modesty and who cannot blush — their own faults. 8. India borders — Burma, and is separated — it partly — the Bay of Bengal, which lies — them, and partly — a line — mountains situated — the north — the Bay. 9. A man should not brood — his troubles, however much he may be burdened — them. 10. She burst — tears, when she found that he did not care — her affection. 11. I am indifferent — heat and cold, because I have a strong chest and there is no need — caution; I am sorry, however, that you have need — so much caution — every change — the weather. 12. He has a great capacity — mathematics, and in respect — this subject his teacher has a great respect — his abilities. 13. In consideration — the fact that no one is perfect, you ought to show more consideration — other men's weaknesses, though there is no need to connive — their faults.

VI.—1. A drowning man will catch — a straw; and if he escapes, you need not caution him again — the danger of throwing himself — the water and bathing — his depth. 2. Cease — speaking evil — others, and cling — charity. You will yourself be judged — your judgment — others. 3. It is useless to clamour — what we cannot have. Do not complain — your lot. Be content — what you have already, and leave the future — Providence. 4. An eye — an eye, and a tooth — a tooth: this was the old law, but it has now been superseded — the duty — forgiveness. 5. They brought a complaint — the magistrate — their neighbour, who — asking their consent had dug a hole almost — the foundations — their house and thus rendered it unsafe — a dwelling-place. The magistrate complied — their request and issued a summons — him. He sentenced him — a fine — trespass. 6. A man who confides — a friend will not conceal anything — him, but will confer — him — all matters — real importance. 7. The wing — a bird corresponds — the arm — a man. 8. I had a long correspondence — him — the wisdom of conforming — custom; but he did not yield — my advice, and remained unconvinced — his error. A man convinced — his will is — the same opinion still, as you know — the proverb. You cannot cure a man — his prejudices. 9. The culprit craved — pardon, and succeeded — getting it. 10. One cock crowed — the other — its victory, as one man boasts — having conquered another, and exults — his defeated rival. 11. You cannot compete — a man who is superior — yourself — resources. It is better to acquiesce — the fact that he has the advantage — you. 12. That trader there, who deals — cotton goods, has dealt hardly — his customers, and they must not concede — his demands — future. 13. The point you spoke — will be attended to. But if you ever touch — it again, I hope you will speak at length — the wider question — which that point hinges. 14. This is an exception — the usual rule. I hope, therefore, you will make an exception — my son's case, and show some forbearance — his inexperience. 15. Live amenable — reason, and independently — other men's help. 16. It is better even to be blind — an eye, than to be blind — one's own

faults. 17. He is committed — a policy which he now dislikes, and is not at all certain — its success. 18. He is blessed — his children, who have all turned out well; but he is not blessed — good health. 19. The ship is bound — India, and is bound — contract to arrive — Calcutta — the 18th of July. 20. He is accountable — his master — the money. 21. I do not concur — you — that opinion. 22. The decision — the dispute is left to me; but I have not yet given my decision — the matter. 23. I have had much experience — sicknesses, but none — curing them. 24. He guesses — his answers; for he has no genius — mathematics; in fact, he is not a genius — anything. 25. In old times an irruption was made — England — the Danes, who — first were more than a match — the Saxons. 26. I have no influence — that man, and therefore my advice has no influence — his actions.

CHAPTER XIX.—CONJUNCTIONS AND CONJUNCTIVE PHRASES

The distinction between Co-ordinative and Subordinative Conjunctions has been shown already in chapter viii. The present chapter shows how individual Conjunctions or Conjunctional phrases can be idiomatically used:—

(1) **Both . . . and.**—This is an emphatic way of expressing the union of two facts or events:—

He is *both* a fool *and* a knave. (He is not a fool only, not a knave only, but both at once.)

Note.—If one fact is more important than the other, the more important one should be mentioned last:—

He was *both* degraded from his class, *and* expelled for one year from the school.

(2) **As well as, no less than.**—In adding one word or sentence to another, they give emphasis to the *first* of the two:—

He *as well as* you is guilty (=He is guilty as well as you are guilty).

He is *no less* guilty *than* you (=He is guilty *no less than* you are guilty).

(3) **Not only . . . but or but also.**—In adding one word or sentence to another, these give emphasis to the *second* of the two:—

Not only I, but all other men declare this to be true.

That man was *not only* accused of the crime, *but also* convicted of it by the magistrate.

(4) **Nay.**—This has sometimes the force of “not only . . . but also”: by appearing to negative the previous statement, it places the second one in a stronger light:—

He was accused, *nay* convicted (accused, and what is more, convicted) of the crime by the magistrate.

(5) **Or rather.**—This has very much the same force as “*nay*.” It corrects the previous statement in order to place the second one in a stronger light:—

He was injured, *or rather* ruined altogether, by the failure of that bank.

(6) **Now.**—This Conjunction (which must not be confounded with the adverb of time) introduces a new remark in *explanation* (not simply in continuation) of a previous one:—

And Pilate said unto them, “Will ye have this man or Barabbas?”

They answered, “Not this man, but Barabbas.” *Now* Barabbas was a robber.—*New Testament*.

(7) **Well.**—This word (when it is used as a Conjunction, and not as an Adverb) introduces a new remark implying satisfaction, regret, surprise, or any other feeling of the mind suggested by the previous remark:—

You have finished the work that was given you;—*well*, you have done a good deal better than you usually do, and I am much pleased with your improvement.

(8) **No sooner than, as soon as.**—These two Conjunctional phrases mean the same thing, except that what is the Principal clause with the former becomes the Subordinate clause with the latter, and *vice versa*:—

Principal Clause.

Subordinate Clause.

(a) He had no sooner heard the news, *than* he wept aloud.
(b) He wept aloud, *as soon as* he heard the news.

(9) **Scarcely (or hardly) before, scarcely (or hardly) when.**—These two Conjunctional phrases mean the same thing; and the meaning is identical with that shown under (8, a):—

He had *scarcely (or hardly)* heard the news, *before* he wept aloud.
He had *scarcely (or hardly)* heard the news, *when* he wept aloud.

(10) **Until, as long as, while.**—To express *time before* we use “*until*”; to express *time how long* we use “*as long as*” or “*while*.” But Indian students are very apt to use “*until*,” where they ought to use “*as soon as*”:—

Erroneous. *Corrected.*
Until you work hard, you will *As long as* you work hard, you improve. will improve.

He continued lazy, *as long as* he was seventeen years old. He continued lazy, *until* he was seventeen years old.

Until it rains, we must stop inside the house. *As long as* it rains, we must stop inside the house.

Erroneous.

Until you stop here, you will find no time for work.

Until the world lasts, the earth will go round the sun.

Corrected.

As long as you stop here, you will find no time for work.

While or so long as the world lasts, the earth will go round the sun.

(11) **Unless, if.**—The conjunction “unless” means “if not.” But in practice it is often confounded with “if.”

Erroneous.

Unless you do not work hard, you will be plucked.

Unless you have no objection, I will come to-morrow.

Corrected.

If you do not work hard, you will be plucked.

If you have no objection, I will come to-morrow.

(12) **Because, in order that.**—To express a *cause* or *reason* we use “because.” To express a *purpose* we use “in order that,” “so that,” etc. But they are often confounded in practice.

Erroneous.

Men work, *because* they may earn a living.

He took medicine, *because* he might get well.

He started early, *because* he might not be late.

Corrected.

Men work, *that* or *so that* or *in order that* they may earn a living.

He took medicine, *so that* he might get well.

He started early, *that* he might not be late.

(13) **Since.**—The use of this word as an Adverb, a Conjunction, or a Preposition has been explained already (see § 402). The student must bear in mind that when it is used as a Conjunction it is *never preceded*, and is *always followed* by a verb in the Past Indefinite tense.

Erroneous.

Two years *passed* since my father *has died*.

It *was* a week since the holidays *commenced*.

A month *passed* since *I am coming* here.

Two hours *elapsed* since he *had fallen asleep*.

Corrected.

Two years *have passed* since my father *died*.

It *is* a week since the holidays *commenced*.

A month *has passed* since *I came* here.

Two hours *have elapsed* since he *fell asleep*.

(14) **Before.**—The use of this word as an Adverb, a Conjunction, or a Preposition has been explained already (see § 404). The student must bear in mind that whenever it is used as a Conjunction with reference to some *future* event it is *never followed* by a verb in the Future tense, even if the verb in the Principal clause is *future*.

Erroneous.

The crops will die, before the rains
will fall. The crops will die, before the
rains *fall or have fallen.*

You will leave India, before three
months *will pass.* You will leave India, before
three months *have passed.*

(15) **That.**—This conjunction should never be used before a sentence in the Direct Narration, nor before Interrogative adverbs or pronouns in the Indirect Narration.

Erroneous.

He said *that* "I shall soon be
there." He said, "I shall soon be there."

He asked *that* how long you
would be absent. He asked how long you would be
absent.

Tell me *that* whether you will soon
return. Tell me *whether* you will soon re-
turn.

I wish to know *that* how much this
book will cost. I wish to know how much this
book will cost.

Corrected.

(16) **Or.**—This conjunction has four separate meanings:—

(a) An alternative or exclusive sense (§ 249, b):—

Either this man sinned *or* his parents.

(b) An inclusive or non-alternative sense. Here the "or" is
early equivalent to "and." Such trades as those of leather, *or* carpentry, *or* smith's work
flourish best in large cities.

(c) To indicate that one word is synonymous or nearly
synonymous with another:—
The tribes *or* castes of India are very numerous.

(d) As an equivalent to "otherwise" (§ 249, b):—

You must work hard; *or* (=otherwise=if you do not work hard)
you will lose your place in the class.

(17) **If.**—This conjunction has three different uses or
meanings:—

(a) For asking a question in the Indirect form of narration.
In this sense it is equivalent to "whether":—

I asked him *if* (=whether) he would return soon.

(b) For expressing a condition or supposition:—

If you return to us to-morrow (=in case you return, or in the event
of your returning), we shall be glad to see you.

(c) For making an admission or concession. (Here the verb
must be Indicative, because it concedes something as a *fact*):—

If I *am* dull (=though I admit that I am dull), I am at least
industrious. (I am dull *indeed*, *but* nevertheless industrious.)

Considering how ill I was, it is no wonder *if* (=that) I made some
mistakes yesterday.

(18) **But**.—The uses of this word as a Preposition have been shown already in § 245. Its uses as a Conjunction and as an Adverb have still to be shown.

(a) As a Subordinative conjunction :—

(1) It never rains *but* it pours.—*Proverb.*

(It never rains *except that* it pours, or It never rains without pouring.)

(2) Perdition catch my soul, *but* I love thee.—*Shakspeare.*

(Perdition catch my soul *if I do not* love thee.)

(3) It cannot be *but* Nature hath some Director of infinite power.—*Hooker.*

(It cannot be, or it is impossible, *that* Nature hath *not* a Director, etc.)

Note.—This use of “but” as a Subordinative conjunction has arisen from the omission of the conjunction “that.” If “that” were expressed, “but” would retain its original character as a preposition signifying “except,” and the Noun-clause following it would be its object.

(b) As a Subordinative conjunction, with some Demonstrative pronoun understood after it. It then has the force of “*who* or *which + not*” (§ 133) :—

No one saw that sight *but* went away shocked.

(No one saw that sight *except that* he went away, or *who* did *not* go away, shocked.)

Note.—It was not always the custom to omit the Demonstrative pronoun after “but.” Thus we have in Shakspeare :—

I found no one *but* he was true to me.

(We should now say, “I found no one *but* was true to me.”)

(c) As an Adversative conjunction of the Co-ordinative class :—

He is rich, *but* discontented.

(d) As an Adverb in the sense of “only” :—

There is *but* (=only) a plank between us and death.

We can *but* die (nothing worse than death can befall us).

(19) **While**, or **whilst**.—“While” is properly a noun signifying “time.” The conjunction “while” is an abridged form of the phrase “the while that,” etc., and in this phrase the noun “while” is an Adverbial objective (see § 287).

The Conjunction “while” has three separate uses or meanings :—

(a) To denote the *simultaneity* of two events :—

You can sit down, *while* (at the same time that) I stand.

(b) To denote *indefinite duration* :—

While (so long as) the world lasts, human nature will remain what it is.

(c) To denote some kind of antithesis or contrast :—

Men of understanding seek after truth ; *while* (=whereas) fools despise knowledge.

(20) **Lest**.—This is a contraction of "by which the less." In older English it was followed by the present Subjunctive :—

{Take heed, *lest* you fall.

{Take heed, *that* you may not fall.

Note.—The Subjunctive is here used in the Optative sense (see § 190),—that is, in the sense of wish or purpose.

In modern English the verb following this conjunction is formed by the Auxiliary verb "should" :—

{He worked hard, *lest* he should fail.

{He worked hard, *that* he might not fail.

(21) **As**.—Since this word is a Relative adverb, it is also a Conjunction (see § 18, 3).

Its uses and meanings as a Conjunction can be seen from the following examples (see also chapter xi. p. 130).

(a) *Time* :—

He trembled *as* (=at what time, or while) he spoke.

(b) *Manner* :—

Do not act *as* (=in what manner) he did.

(c) *State or Condition* :—

He took it just *as* (=in what state) it was.

(d) *Extent* :—

He is not so clever *as* (to what extent) you are.

(e) *Contrast or Concession* resulting from the sense of extent :—

{ Hot *as* the sun is (to whatever extent the sun is hot), we must leave the house.

{ However hot the sun is, we must leave the house.

{ Although the sun is ever so hot, we must leave the house.

(f) *Cause* :—

As (from what cause or for the reason that) rain has fallen, the air is cooler.

(22) **However**.—This is a Co-ordinative conjunction, when it stands alone ; but Subordinative, when it qualifies some adjective or adverb.

(a) *Co-ordinative* :—

All men were against him : he kept his courage, *however*, to the last.

(b) Subordinative :—

However poor a man is, he need not be dishonest.

However well you may work, you cannot demand more than your stipulated pay.

(23) **Indeed . . . but.**—These go together as a pair. They emphasise the contrast between the first and the second statement (see No. 17, c).

The robbers *indeed* were caught and convicted ; *but* nothing that they had stolen could be found.

(24) There are certain words and phrases signifying **Time** or **Place**, which when they stand *alone* are simply adverbs. But when they are used *in pairs* for the sake of contrasting one time with another time, or one place with another place, they may be included among Conjunctions, since they join one sentence to another by way of contrast.

- (1) On the battle-field there was a dead body *here* (=in one place), and a dying man *there* (=in another place).
- (2) *On the one side* all was quiet ; *on the other* there was nothing but confusion and disorder.
- (3) *On the one hand* he spoke the truth ; *on the other* he broke a secret. (This might be written :—“He spoke the truth *indeed*, but in doing so he broke a secret.”)
- (4) Now (=at one time) he laughs, then (=at another time) he cries.

(25) Certain Prepositions and Adverbs are sometimes used as Conjunctions :—

Supposing the rain does not fall, we cannot commence ploughing.

Now you have packed up your clothes, you are ready to start.

Provided you give a receipt, I will pay the bill.

Note.—In all such cases the conjunction “*that*” is understood after the preposition or adverb. Similarly the prepositions *before*, *after*, *since*, *until*, *for*, *but*, were followed by “*that*” in earlier English. By the omission of this word, they were changed from prepositions to conjunctions. “*Provided*” is elliptical for “*it being provided that*.”

(26) **When, where.**—These conjunctions or Relative adverbs (in the same way as the Relative pronouns “*who*” or “*which*”) can be used in two very distinct senses :—

(a) The Restrictive or qualifying (§ 134) :—

The house *where* (=in which) we lived has fallen down.

The hour *when* (=at which) you arrived was four P.M.

(b) The Continuative or simply connective :—

On 24th January we reached Calcutta, *where* (=and there) we stayed a fortnight.

We stayed at Calcutta for two weeks, *when* (=and then) I received a letter which compelled me to return to Hoogly.

(27) **Though, yet.**—The conjunction "though," when it is followed by a verb in the Subjunctive mood, expresses a doubt ; and, when it is followed by a verb in the Indicative mood, it expresses a fact:—

Though he punish me (even if he should punish me, which may or may not happen), yet will I trust in him.

Though he has denied the deed, no one will believe his word.

(28) **At the same time, all the same.**—These phrases are used as Co-ordinative conjunctions of the Adversative class, and mean the same thing as "nevertheless":—

There is much point in what you say ; *at the same time* (= nevertheless) we adhere to our own opinion.

There is much point in what you say ; we adhere to our own opinion *all the same*.

Note.—"At the same time" generally stands at the beginning of its sentence, while "all the same" generally stands at the end of it.

(29) **According as.**—

The plan will succeed or not *according as* it is judiciously managed.

The phrase "according as" means "according to the extent to which," or "according to the manner in which."

(30) **As sure as.**—

As sure as you are sitting there, you will have to go.

Here "sure" is an adverb = surely :— "Surely to that extent to which," etc.

(31) **In case.**—This is equivalent to "supposing," and is an elliptical phrase for "in the case in which":—

In case we fail, we must have something to fall back upon.

(32) **In order that, so that.**—If there is any fear of ambiguity in the meaning of "that," the addition of the words "in order" or "so" shows clearly that *purpose* is the sense intended :—

He shouted at the top of his voice, *in order that* he might be heard.

(33) **Inasmuch as, or in as much as.**—This phrase denotes cause or reason :—

He yielded to the invader, *inasmuch as* (=because) his army was thoroughly defeated.

(34) **Directly.**—This is an adverb qualifying the conjunction "when" understood. It is equivalent to "as soon as":—

Directly I heard the news, I hastened to the spot.

(35) **So that.**—This phrase is sometimes used to express a condition :—

You can do whatever you like, *so that* (provided, or on condition that) you injure no one but yourself.

Conjunctions less commonly used.

(36) **Except, without, against.**—Once “except” and “without” were used for “unless,” and “against” as equivalent to “against the time in which” :—

Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.
You will not live long *without* you take exercise.
Have everything ready *against* he returns home.

(37) **Albeit.**—This signifies “although” :—

Albeit all is fair, there lacketh something still.

(38) **Howbeit.**—This signifies “nevertheless,” “however that may be” :—

The Moor is of a constant nature ; *howbeit* I endure him not.

(39) **Nathless.**—Used in poetry for “nevertheless.”

(40) **Or ere, or ever.**—These signify “before” :—

Would I had met my dearest foe in heaven, *or ever* I had seen that day, Horatio !—*Shakspeare*.

It is generally explained that “or” is a corruption of “ere,” which means “before.” Hence “or ere” is merely a reduplication ; and in “or ever” the “ever” is a suffix, as in “whatever.”

(41) **In that, in the fact that, since.**—Here “that” is the conjunction of apposition ; and the Noun-clause following it is the object to the preposition “in” :—

In that he died, he died unto sin once.—*New Testament*.

(42) **In so much that.**—This denotes effect or consequence :—

The riots continued all day, *in so much that* (with the result that) it was dangerous to leave the house.

(43) **For as much as.**—This denotes cause or reason, and is equivalent to “since” :—

For as much as many have taken in hand to do this, further help is not required.

(44) **An if.**—In older English this was sometimes used for “if,” and it is still used in poetry ;—always in the Conditional sense (see No. 17, b).

Note.—The “an” is a contraction of “and,” which was once used to combine two clauses conditionally as well as assertively. When this sense of “and” or “an” was forgotten, the “if” was inserted to remove any doubt as to the meaning.

A.—Insert Co-ordinative conjunctions in the places indicated by —

1. Hear the opinions of other men, — form thine own judgment.
2. He was not surpassed — by you — any one else.
3. We have — heard — read about that matter; we are — in total ignorance, — unable to form an opinion about it.
4. We see poverty on all sides, — discontent nowhere.
5. He blamed them for their rashness, — relieved their wants.
6. The flowers have come out before their season; — I have never seen such a thing before.
7. They were defeated indeed, — not disgraced.
8. He came upon me very suddenly; — I had no time to run off — hide.
9. You are not a man to quarrel; — we had better come to terms.
10. Glamis hath murdered sleep; — he shall sleep no more.
11. The approach of the horsemen was now beyond doubt; — a cloud of dust was seen in the distance, — a tramping of horses' feet was distinctly heard.
12. In the discharge of his duty he was a strict — just man.
13. The sound of a gun near at hand startled — my horse — myself.
14. Stone walls do not make a prison, — iron bars a cage.
15. The rain comes — goes in slight showers; — the heavy rains have not yet set in.
16. My own house — yours is built of good lime — burnt brick; — it will not crumble to pieces sooner than yours.
17. He has given each of you a sum of money; — he has left you all his books — all his gardens.
18. Julius Caesar was murdered in Rome by a gang of conspirators; — Julius Caesar was the first of the Roman Emperors.
19. He fell suddenly down in a fainting fit: several persons rushed forward to support him; — they were too late.
20. He has run away with all the money entrusted to him; — what steps shall we take? Shall we search for him ourselves, — shall we employ the police?
21. Civil wars have been usually marked — by the fierceness — by the stubborn pertinacity of the contending parties.
22. Heaven and earth may pass away; — my words shall never pass away.
23. My son last term was — idle — in bad health; — he was not promoted at the end of the term.
24. He paid off his creditors in time; — he would certainly have been imprisoned for debt.
25. He declared he would never forsake his post; — he fled away at the first sign of danger.
26. Prince Argid was good-natured, handsome, and clever; — he was of rather a timid disposition.
27. This poor man must be off his head; — he laughs at one time, — weeps at another.
28. The temple stands in the middle of a fine masonry tank, —

a marble bridge leads up to it: — this temple was built by an ancient Hindu Raja.

29. Do not take any part — in his amusements — his plots; — you will get into trouble by being seen in his company.

30. They were determined to obtain his consent — by flattery, — by force, — by persuasion; — they never succeeded after all.

31. My father made me go to school regularly every day; — I should not now be so successful in life as I am.

32. He was so shocked at the sad news that he — spoke — wept, — went away in silence — was not seen again that day.

33. I hope you will remember to be just — generous to those who are dependent on you.

34. I must speak out; — I shall blame myself ever afterwards.

35. He is a worthless fellow, possessed — of ability — industry — honesty — common sense; — what sort of punishment can be inflicted on such a creature?

36. Give thine ear to every man, — thy voice to few.

B.—Insert Subordinative conjunctions or Relative or Interrogative adverbs in the places indicated by —

1. The wind beat against the house, — a part of the roof was blown off.

2. The bulls, — they stood together, were a match for the lion; but — they separated from each other, they fell an easy prey.

3. Tell me candidly — you like my composition, and — you think it shows signs of future promise.

4. No sooner had he gone to bed — a telegram was brought in.

5. Elephants are not full-grown — they are fifty or sixty years of age.

6. It is of no use for me to shoot, — I am sure to miss the mark.

7. What can be gained in a place — every one is poor?

8. This dreadful thought pursues me — I go.

9. He was received with respect — he went, and listened to attentively — he began to speak.

10. Remain — thou art, — I return.

11. Be ye wise — serpents, but harmless — doves.

12. The river had risen so high, — we could not cross it even in a boat.

13. Present evils are sometimes less distressing — expected ones.

14. Evil is meant by that man's words, smooth — they are.

15. The more we study the human mind, the less able are we to understand — it came into existence or — it had its source.

16. I am quite as much ashamed — you are.

17. I cannot fear any evil, — thou art near.

18. I will keep it by me night and day, — any harm should come to it.

19. We are glad — he has succeeded so well, — he has thoroughly deserved it.

20. His success is the more creditable, — he had no help from any one, — many offered to help him.

21. At length the moon arose. — it was almost hidden by clouds.

22. They shut up all the shops, — the travellers might not be able to take anything by force.

23. Some men eat — they may live; others live — they may eat.

24. I am ready to start, — you may desire to do so.

25. The terrified women would have fled more quickly — they did, — they had not been burdened with baggage.

26. We can be happy, — we are poor, — we are contented.

27. I shall die of this disease, — I first die of hunger.

28. You have lied so often, — no one will trust you, even — you speak the truth.

29. I will not rise from my seat, — I am bidden.

30. He was forced to get up, — he liked it — not.

31. On first coming here, — I was quite honest, every one distrusted me so much, — for a long time I found it difficult to live.

32. He gave the boy a prize, not — he had actually earned one, but — he might be induced to work harder next term.

33. Agriculture is the foundation of all wealth, — food is raised by this means; and no one, — clever he may be, can live without food.

34. Past errors may be regretted; but past moments, — they have once fled, are fled for ever and cannot be recalled.

35. The savages, — they saw the ship approaching their island, believed — it was some great animal moving on the water, — they had never seen a ship before.

36. The peasant grows pale, — he sees a cloud of locusts approach.

37. I do not doubt — you will succeed in time, — only you will persevere and trust — your labours will be at last rewarded.

38. She turned away in disgust, — she was unable to bear the sight any longer.

39. I will pay you down all that you ask, — you sign a receipt on a stamped paper.

40. They were willing to commence work, and begged — they might be ordered to do so, — they were still weak from the recent attack of fever.

41. The robber fled — he heard the shouts; but he escaped — any one had time to see his face.

42. Seed must be sown — it will germinate; and flowers must bloom for some time — they can turn into seed.

43. He walked on, — he was so tired — he could walk no farther: then he sat down and waited — food was brought to him.

44. Do — you are told; and then no one can blame you, — a mistake has been made.

45. Tired — you are, you will finish your journey by twelve o'clock, — you stop nowhere on the road.

C.—Correct, where necessary, the Conjunctions used in the following sentences; or change the words in such a way as to make the Conjunction and entire sentence correct:—

1. He was hopeful as well as confident.
2. No sooner he died, his sons quarrelled over his property.
3. He scarcely returned home, before his son was taken seriously ill.
4. He was not only convicted, but also accused.

5. He said in his letter that "I shall arrive at the station by ten o'clock."
6. Unless you do not take care, you will fall into debt.
7. He started early, because he might not be late.
8. One year passed, since I first came to live in this place.
9. We must have more sun, before the mangoes will ripen.
10. Until you remain in camp, your men and horses will get no rest.
11. He inquired of me that when I intended returning home.
12. As long as you amend your ways, you have no chance of becoming prosperous or happy.
13. When I give to one, I must give to all.
14. I asked him to tell me that how much he paid a month for his son's tuition.
15. No sooner he heard of his son's success, than he was taken ill with fever.
16. Unless he does not work harder, he will certainly fail.
17. Until you do not begin to make a better use of your time, I shall not cease to find fault with you.
18. He was sent to Bombay, because he might get the best medical advice.
19. He ought to start at once, lest he may become too ill to travel, if he stays here any longer.
20. She disliked to be questioned that how old she was.

D.—Substitute equivalent Conjunctions or phrases wherever you can in the following sentences:—

1. He no less than you was guilty of that crime.
2. No sooner had the clock struck twelve, than all the doors were closed.
3. I am a passionate admirer of good poetry, while you prefer good prose.
4. He had scarcely sat down to breakfast, when a letter came in that compelled him to leave the house.
5. I occupied the house that we were speaking of for four years, and then I left it, because I found one that suited me better.
6. Seeing that all men are liable to make mistakes, you must not be surprised, if I made one yesterday.
7. Unless you are very careful, you will run into debt.
8. He rose at six A.M. on that day, lest he should be too late for the train.
9. Discouraged as we have been, we must still persevere.
10. Please let me know if you succeeded at last.
11. While human nature continues to be what it is, men must guard against selfishness.
12. Be careful of that man, or he will cheat you.
13. Their strength, or speed, or vigilance were given in aid of our defects.—*Cowper*.
14. If the Puritans in the time of King Charles suppressed bear-fighting, this was not done out of mercy to the bears.
15. Not only was he commended, but rewarded for what he had done.
16. He was injured, nay ruined by the dishonesty of his partner.
17. Never dream but ill must come of it.—*Shelley*.

18. As you are now eight years old, your education must be no longer postponed.

19. I will take an early walk every day, that I may recover my health.

20. Supposing you resign this post, what better one do you expect to get in its place?

21. Now the rain has fallen, the seed that was lately sown will commence to sprout.

22. However rich a man may be, his wealth leaves him as much as ever a prey to ill-temper and disease.

23. Themistocles was a traitor to his country, while Miltiades was surnamed the Just.

24. He was not refreshed, considering that he passed a very sleepless night.

25. I do not doubt but you are wrong.

26. Tell me whether I am right.

27. In case you are taken ill on the way, a dose of this medicine will put you right.

28. Money or your life.

29. The wind was blowing a heavy gale, as the ship left port and went out to sea.

30. At one time he works, at another he relapses into idleness.

31. He drove indeed as fast as he could, but not fast enough to catch the train.

32. Except ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.—*New Testament*.

33. We halted four days at Patna, and then we started for Benares.

34. They threatened to fine him 100 rupees, unless he kept a cleaner yard.

35. He is an active, and therefore a healthy man.

36. All men are mortal; so he will die some day like the rest of us.

37. Though every one else deny thee, yet will I never deny thee.—*New Testament*.

CHAPTER XX.—MISCELLANEOUS WORDS, PHRASES, AND CONSTRUCTIONS.

(1) All of them, both of them:—

All of them (=they all) consented.

Both of them (=they both) consented.

In phrases like "some of them," "one of them," "two of them," the "of" has a partitive sense. Such a sense is, however, impossible where "all" or "both" are concerned. We must therefore conclude that phrases like "all of them," "both of them," have come into use by analogy.

(2) And in Interrogative sentences:—

And art thou cold and lowly laid?—*Scott*.

In such sentences the "and" does not join its own sentence.

to a previous one, but introduces a form of exclamation :—
 “Can it be true that thou art cold and lowly laid ?”

(3) The use of “as” before a noun :—

- (a) This box will serve us *as* a table.
- (b) We will not have this man *as* our chief.

The ellipses can be filled up as follows :—

- (a) This box will serve us *as* a table (would serve us, if we had a table).
- (b) We will not have this man *as* (in the way in which we would have) our chief.

(4) The use of “as” before an adjective :—

He considered the report *as* false.

That is, “He considered the report *as* (he would consider, if it were) false.”

(5) The use of “as” before “if” and “though” :—

- (a) He clung to it *as if* his life depended on it.
- (b) He clung to it *as though* his life depended on it.

That is, (a) “He clung to it, as (he would have clung to it, if) his life depended on it.” (b) “He clung to it as (fast as he could have clung to it, for he could not have clung to it faster) though his life depended on it.”

(6) **As . . . as, so . . . as** :—

He is *as* clever *as* his brother. (*Affirm.*)

He is *not* *as* clever *as* his brother. (*Negat.*)

He is *not so* clever *as* his brother. (*Negat.*)

All that can be said is that “*as . . . as*” is used in both affirmative and negative sentences, while “*so . . . as*” is used in negative ones only. This is purely a matter of custom or idiom, and no reason can be given for it.

(7) **As thee, as me** :—

The nations not so blest as *thee*.—*Thomson*.

Even such weak minister as *me*.

May the oppressor bruise.—*Scott*.

These uses of the Objective case, if we consider “*as*” to be here a conjunction, are grammatical blunders ; for the right construction would be “not so blest as *thou* (art blest),” and “such weak minister as *I* (am weak).” But it has been suggested by one writer that “*as*” may here be regarded as a preposition of comparison followed by a pronoun in the Objective case. In colloquial English this use of “*as*” is common ; but careful writers avoid it, and all grammarians forbid it.

(8) **As usual** :—

He came at four o’clock, *as usual*.

"As" is here a Relative adverb (p. 130), and the verb "is" is understood:—"He came at what time is usual (with him)."

(9) **At best, at his best** :—

At best he is only a moderate speaker.
He was *at his best* this morning.

In Superlative phrases of very frequent occurrence, such as "at best," "at worst," "at first," "at last," "at most," "at least," no pronoun or article is placed between the preposition and the adjective, unless we wish to particularise.

But in similarly constructed phrases, which are of less frequent occurrence, a pronoun or the Definite article is used :—

The wind is *at its loudest* or *the loudest*. The storm is *at its fiercest*.
To-day the patient is *at his weakest*. The season is now *at its loveliest*. The air is now *at its hottest*.

(10) **At ten years old, at four miles distant** :—

(1) My son was <i>ten years old</i> when he died.
(2) My son died <i>at ten years of age</i> .
(3) My son died <i>at ten years old</i> .
(1) My house is <i>four miles distant</i> from the sea.
(2) My house is <i>at four miles' distance</i> from the sea.
(3) My house is <i>at four miles distant</i> from the sea.

Sentences (1) and (2) in both sets of examples are quite correct. Sentence (3) has arisen from a confusion between the constructions in (1) and (2). Such a construction is not grammatically correct; and, though it is used by some writers and speakers, it is best to avoid it.

(11) **Bid fair to, etc.** :—

This institution *bids fair* (=makes a fair or good promise) to flourish for many years to come.

Here the adjective "fair" qualifies some noun implied in the verb "bid": "bids a fair bidding or promise."

(12) **But he** :—

What stays (=supports) had I *but they*?—*Shakspeare*.
And was he not the earl? "Twas none but *he*.—*William Tayler*.
The boy stood on the burning deck,
Whence all *but he* had fled.—*Mrs. Hemans*.

The Nominative after "but" has arisen from a confusion between the conjunctival use of "but" and its prepositional origin. "Whence all had fled, *but he had not fled*,"—that is, all had fled except him.

(13) But what :—

- (a) I cannot say *but what* you may be right.
- (b) Not *but what* he did his best.

Here "what" has come into use as a substitute for "that." In both sentences "but" is a preposition, to which the following Noun-clause is the object (see § 241, c).

(a) This sentence could be reworded thus :—"I cannot say anything *except* or *against* that-you-are-right,"—that is, anything to the contrary of your being right.

(b) This sentence is elliptical. The ellipse would be filled up as follows :—"I do not say anything except that he did his best, or to the contrary of his having done his best."

Note.—The substitution of "what" for "that" after the preposition "but" occurs only after the verbs "say" or "believe." It does not occur after any other verbs.

(14) By thousands, by little, by himself, etc. :—

- (a) The white ants came streaming out *by thousands*.
- (b) The water oozes out little *by little*.
- (c) He went out of the room *by himself*.

From denoting instrumentality, the preposition "by" came to denote manner or number; in which sense it often does the work of a Distributive adjective (see § 352, a). In (a) "by thousands" means "in the manner or to the number of thousands,"—that is, "a thousand at a time," or "one thousand after another." In (b) "little by little" is elliptical for "by little by little"; as in Pope :—

Loth to enrich me with too quick replies,
By little and by little (he) drops his lies.

In (c) the phrase "by himself," which is often used for "alone," is founded on the analogy of the above phrases :—"He went out by himself,"—that is, "he went out himself at a time," or "he went out *alone*, unaccompanied by any one else."

(15) Came to pass, came to be considered, etc. :—

In this construction (which is very common), the Infinitive is Gerundial, and the "to" denotes *effect* or *result*. On this use of the preposition "to" before a noun, see § 415 (35); on its use in the same sense with the Gerundial Infinitive, see § 196 (a).

(16) Can but, cannot but :—

- (a) We *can but* die.
- (b) We *cannot but* die.

In (a) the word "but" is an adverb: "We can *only* die."—

that is, nothing worse than death can befall us. In (b) the word "but" retains its original character as a preposition:—"We cannot do anything *except* die." Here "die" is the Noun-Infinitive used as object to the preposition "but" (see § 193, f). In (a) "die" is object to the Trans. verb *can* (p. 89).

(17) **Come, go** :—

(a) Are you *coming* to the meeting to-day?
 (b) Are you *going* to the meeting to-day?

In sentence (a) the use of the verb "come" implies that the questioner himself intends to be present at the meeting, and he inquires whether the person addressed will be present also. The person addressed might say in reply, "Yes, I shall be there with you"; or "No, I shall not join you there."

In sentence (b) the use of the verb "go" is perfectly general; and hence the person addressed might reply:—"Yes, I am going to the meeting; are you?" or "No, I am not going; are you?"

"Come" means motion *towards* a person or place; "go" means motion *from* a person or place. Thus we say, "The sun is *coming up*," or "the sun is *going down*"; "The plant is *coming into flower*," or "the plant is *going to seed*";—that is, it has passed its prime, and is beginning to fade or go away.

(18) **Come to grief, go to the dogs** :—

He has come to grief.
 He has gone to the dogs.

These colloquial phrases mean almost the same thing. There is no saying why "come" is used in one and "go" in the other.

(19) **Dependent on, independent of** :—

I am wholly dependent *on* your help.
 I am quite independent *of* your help.

Why is the same preposition not used with both adjectives? "On" is used after "dependent," because this preposition denotes rest, support, as on some foundation. "Of" is used after "independent," because this preposition denotes "separation," and the same meaning is implied in the adjective "independent."

(20) **Doubt that, doubt but** :—

(a) I do not doubt *that* he is ill.
 (b) I do not doubt *but* or *but that* he is ill.

These two sentences amount to the same thing. They might be rewritten as follows:—

(a) I do not doubt (=question) the fact that he is ill.
 (b) I do not doubt anything *against* the fact that he is ill.

In (b) the word "but" is a preposition, and the Noun-clause "that he is ill" is its object; or if "that" is omitted after "but," the "but" is a conjunction.

Note.—It is only after the verbs "doubt" and "deny" that "but" can be substituted for "that."

(21) **Excuse, excuse not** :—

(a) I hope you will excuse my coming here to-day.
 (b) I hope you will excuse my *not* coming here to-day.

These two sentences amount to the same thing, and could be rewritten as follows :—

(a) I hope you will excuse (=dispense with, not insist on) my coming here to-day.
 (b) I hope you will excuse (=pardon) my *not* coming (my neglect to come) here to-day.

Observe that the verb "excuse" is used in a different sense in each sentence.

Note.—Owing to the ambiguity of the verb "excuse," sentence (a) might mean "I hope you will excuse or *pardon* the fact of my having come here to-day."

(22) **Far, by far, far from, anything but** :—

(a) { The air is *far* hotter to-day than yesterday.
 { The air is *much* hotter to-day than yesterday.
 (b) { He is *far* or *by far* the best boy in the class.
 { He is *much* the best boy in the class.
 (c) { His manners are *far from* pleasant.
 { His manners are *anything but* pleasant.

In (a) "far" is equivalent to "much." Both of these adverbs can qualify an adjective in the *Comparative* degree, but not in the *Positive* (see § 398, a).

In (b) "far" or "by far" is equivalent to "much." Both of these adverbs are used to intensify the *Superlative* degree of adjectives (see § 398, f).

Note 1.—The phrase "by far" is not used with the *Comparative* degree unless it is placed after it. We cannot say "The air is *by far* hotter to-day." But we can say "*hotter by far* to-day."

Note 2.—In the phrase "by far," "far" is used as a noun and is object to the preposition "by," "like" "at once," "till now," etc. (§ 241, a).

In (c) the phrase "far from" is equivalent to "anything but":—"His manners are *anything but* (=except) being pleasant." Here "being pleasant" is the object to the preposition "but." "The quality of being pleasant is not merely absent from his manners, but *far distant from* them."

(23) **First importance, last importance** :—

- (a) This is a matter of the *first* importance.
- (b) This is a matter of the *last* importance.

Though "first" and "last" are usually of opposite meanings, yet in the above phrases their meaning is the same. In (a) "first" denotes "foremost,"—taking precedence of everything else. In (b) "last" denotes "utmost," "greatest,"—which comes to the same thing as "foremost."

The opposite phrase to "of the first or of the last importance" is "of the least importance":—

This is a matter of the least importance (=of little or no importance, of less importance than anything else).

(24) **Good-looking** :—

He is a *good-looking* (=handsome) man.

This is a well-established phrase. Yet we cannot turn it round and say "He looks good" for "He is handsome"; and if we say "He looks *well*," this means, "He looks (or seems to be) in *good health*."

(25) **He to deceive me, and similar phrases** :—

- (a) *I* to be so foolish!
- (b) *He* to deceive me!

These exclamatory sentences are elliptical. (a) "Am I a person to be so foolish!" (b) "Could he be a person to deceive me!" The Infinitive is here Gerundial, and qualifies the noun or pronoun going before.

(26) **His, its.**—The older Possessive form for "it" was "his":—

No comfortable star did lend *his* light.—*Shakspeare*.

Sometimes "it" was used as a Possessive:—

It knighthood and *it* friends.—*Ben Jonson*.

"Its" is used only three times by Milton, A.D. 1608-1674. After Milton's time the use of "its" as the Possessive form of "it" became thoroughly established.

(27) **I beg to, etc.** :—

I beg to inquire whether I may go home.

This is a common ellipse for "I beg leave to," etc. It is more common to omit the noun "leave" than to insert it.

(28) **I take it** :—

You will win in that case, *I take it*.

This is a common phrase for "in my opinion."

(29) **I was given to understand** :—

If this sentence is converted from the Passive form to the Active, it becomes :—“Some one gave or caused me to understand.” Here “me” is the Indirect object, and “to understand” (Noun-Infinitive) is the Direct. By the rule given in § 164, a verb which has two objects in the Active voice can retain one in the Passive. Hence in the sentence “I was given to understand,” the Noun-Infinitive is *Retained object* to the Passive verb “was given.”

(30) **In respect of, with respect to** :—

He is senior to me *in respect of* service.

We must have a talk *with respect to* that subject.

These phrases are not identical in meaning. “In respect of” means “in point of” some quality, and is preceded by an adjective. “With respect to” means “concerning,” and qualifies some verb or noun : we should not say, “We must have a talk in respect of that subject.”

(31) **In thorough working order** :—

Here “thorough” is an adjective qualifying the compound noun “working order” (that kind of order which is suitable for working). On Compound nouns of this description see below, § 443 (2).

(32) **It's me, that's him** :—

The phrases “it's me,” “that's him,” are used colloquially, but are condemned by grammarians, because “me” and “him” are Subjective complements to the verb “is,” and such complements must be in the same case as the Subject,—that is, in the Nominative case (see § 285, 2). “That's him” is indefensible. But the phrase “it's me” is defended by some authors : (1) because it is the counterpart of the French “*c'est moi*,” which is recognised as an established idiom by the best French writers ; (2) because “me” is an adopted or borrowed objective of “I,” and might be appropriately used as a predicate, though not as a subject.

(33) **Lesser, less**.—“Lesser” is a Double Comparative, which is used for euphony to balance the sound of “greater” :—

The *greater* light to rule the day ; and the *lesser* light to rule the night.—*Old Testament*.

Note.—Observe “lesser” is always an adjective. But “less” may be either an adjective or an adverb.

(34) **More than, with adjectives and verbs** :—

(a) It is *more than* probable that he will fail. (*With Adj.*)

(b) He *more than* hesitated to promise that. (*With Verb.*)

The construction is elliptical. The two sentences could be written at greater length as follows :—

- (a) It is not only probable, but more than this,—it is very nearly certain, that, etc.
- (b) He *did* more than *hesitate* (almost refused) to promise. (Here the Noun-infinitive “*hesitate*” is object to “*than*” : § 244.)

(35) **Mutual friend** :—

The word “*mutual*” implies reciprocity ; as “*our friendship is mutual*,”—that is, “I love you, and you love me in return.” But the phrase “*a mutual friend*” has come into vogue in a sense quite different from that of reciprocity. “I made his acquaintance through a *mutual friend*,”—that is, a *common friend*, some one who was a friend to myself as well as a friend to him. The use of the word “*mutual*” in this particular phrase is anomalous, but sanctioned by usage. We could not speak of two persons having “*mutual ancestors*.”

(36) **Never so, ever so** :—

- (a) He refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, charm he *never so* wisely.—*Old Testament*.
- (b) He refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, charm he *ever so* wisely.

These two phrases mean the same thing. In (a) the dependent clause written out in full would be, “*although he charm so wisely as he never charmed before*.” In (b) the clause can be rewritten “*however wisely he may charm*.” The phrase “*ever so*” is the one now used ; “*never so*” was used in older English.

(37) **“No,” “none,” as adverbs** :—

- (a) He is *no* scholar.
- (b) He is *none* the wiser for all his experience.

In (a) the word “*no*” = in no respect. In (b) “*none*” = in no degree. “*None*” is used in this adverbial sense, only when it is followed by such a phrase as “*the wiser*,”—that is, by “*the*” and a Comparative. Similarly we can say “*all the better*,” where “*all*,” like “*none*,” is used adverbially.

(38) **None of them** :—

None of them *were* present.

“*None*,” when it is used as a Subject, is a Singular = not one, or no one. But the phrase “*none of them*,” when it is used as a Subject, takes a Plural verb by attraction :—“*they none*.” Or the Plural may be explained by analogy to the phrases “*all of them*,” “*some of them*,” etc.

(39) *Of* in the sense of Apposition.—This can be used before some kinds of Proper names, but not before all:—

The island *of* Ceylon. The province *of* Bengal. The Presidency *of* Bombay. The city *of* Delhi. The district *of* Delhi. The continent *of* Asia. The county *of* Kent. The lake *of* Geneva. The title *of* Colonel. The name *of* Brighton.

On the other hand, we cannot place it before Proper names of rivers, mountains, or capes. Thus we cannot say “the river *of* Ganges,” “the mountain *of* Kinchinjunga,” “the cape *of* Comorin.”

(40) *One, the same, one and the same* :—

- (a) It's all *one* to me.
- (b) It's all *the same* to me.
- (c) It's *one* and *the same* thing to me.

These three sentences all mean the same thing, except that (c) is a little more emphatic. Here “one” is used in the sense of “the same.” The emphasis is produced by the repetition.

(41) *One more . . . and* :—

- (a) *One more* whistle, *and* the train started.
- (b) *One more* such loss, *and* we shall be ruined.

In each of these sentences there is an ellipsis of some verb in the Principal clause. (a) “*There was* one more whistle, and the train started,”—that is, *after* one more whistle, the train started. (b) “*We must incur* one more such loss, and then we shall be ruined,”—that is, *if we incur* one more such loss, we shall be ruined. This sentence therefore expresses a condition and its consequence.

(42) *One to another, to one another, to each other* :—

- (a) They shouted *one to another*.
- (b) They shouted *to one another*.

The phrase in (a) is grammatically correct, while that in (b) is grammatically wrong, since “one” is in the Nominative case in apposition with “they” :—“They shouted—*one* shouted to another.” Nevertheless the phrase “*to one another*” has become established by usage, and is now the more idiomatic of the two.

If we use the phrase “*each other*,” we could not say “they shouted *each to other*”; but we should have to say “they shouted *each to the other*,” because “*each other*” is used for two persons, whereas “*one another*” is used for more than two (see § 351). “*Each to the other*” is, however, an awkward phrase, and far less idiomatic than “*to each other*.”

(43) **Or, nor, in Negative sentences:—**

He was not a clever man in books *or* in business.

The question has been raised whether "or" is correct in such sentences, or whether "nor" should be written in the place of it.

The answer is that the "or" is correct. The sentence, however, is elliptical; and the ellipse would be filled up as follows:—

He was not clever *either* in books *or* in business.

If "nor" is used instead of "or," the sentence must be rewritten in the following form, which, however, is awkward and cumbersome.

He was not clever in books, *nor* was he clever in business.

(44) **Other than, other besides:—**

- (a) No person *other than* a graduate need apply.
- (b) No other person *besides* my friend applied.

In (a) "other than" means "different from," "except," "but":—"No one *except* a graduate, no *other* person *but* a graduate." The word "than" is here a preposition (not a conjunction), which compares or distinguishes a graduate from other men. In (b) "other besides" means "other in addition to":—"No one *besides* or *in addition to* my friend applied."

(45) **Out of temper, in a temper:—**

- (a) He is *out of temper* (angry).
- (b) He is *in a temper* (angry).

These phrases mean the same thing, and written in full would be, (a) *out of his ordinary or good temper*, (b) *in a bad temper*.

(46) **Prevent being, prevent from being:—**

- (a) The delay *prevented* your letter *being sent*.
- (b) The delay *prevented* your letter *from being sent*.

These two sentences mean the same thing, and both are correct. But in (a) "being sent" is a Passive Participle used gerundively, while in (b) "being sent" is not a participle at all, but a Passive gerund or noun used as object to the preposition "from."

In (a) the Gerundive Participle (see § 211 and § 300, c) contains an implied noun, and the words "prevented your letter *being sent*" are equivalent to "prevented the *sending of* your letter."

(47) **Save he, save we, etc.:—**

There was no stranger in the house *save we* two.—*Old Testament*.
No man hath seen the Father, *save he* which is of God.—*New Testament*.

All the conspirators, save only *he*.—*Shakspeare*.

None shall be mistress of it save *I* alone.—*Shakspeare*.

This Nominative (which is now gradually going out of use) is a survival of the Nominative Absolute, which was used when "save" or "saved" was still a Past Participle, and had not been changed into a Preposition. On Participial prepositions see § 243 (4), (a).

(48) **Self, my-self, him-self, etc.** :—

When "self" is added to a pronoun of the *First* or *Second* person, it is preceded by the *Possessive* case. But when it is added to a pronoun of the *Third* person, it is preceded by the *Objective* case. Thus we have—

First and Second Persons.—My-self, our-selves. Thy-self, your-selves.

Third Person.—Him-self, her-self, them-selves.

How is this to be explained? The word "self" was originally an adjective signifying "same," "actual," "identical"; as in the common phrase "self-same" = "the very same."

On these *self* (=identical) hills.—*Raleigh*.

To shoot another arrow that *self* (=same) way

Which thou didst shoot at first.—*Shakspeare*.

At that *self* (=same) moment enters Palamon.—*Dryden*.

But, like many other adjectives, "self" was also used as a noun, as we still see it used in such phrases as "a man's better *self*" (= the better side of his character); "she was beauty's *self*" (= a personification of beauty). Here the noun "self" is very correctly qualified by a noun in the Possessive case. Similarly in the First and Second persons we have "my-self," "yourself," etc., where the noun "self" is correctly qualified by the Possessives "my" and "your."

But in composition with pronouns in the Third person, "self" has retained its original force as an adjective. Hence we have—

He hurt *him-self*. (*Object to Verb*.)

He did it by *him-self*. (*Object to Prep.*)

Two anomalies, however, remain: (a) The Plural form of the Reflexive pronoun is "themselves" not "them-self." Here, by the attraction of the plural "them," *self* the adjective has become confused with *self* the noun. (b) The form "himself," "herself," and "themselves," although they are in the Objective case, are used as if they were in apposition with pronouns in the Nominative case, as—

He *him-self* saw it. They *them-selves* saw it.

Here *himself, herself, themselves* are not really Nominatives in apposition with *he, she, they*. They are Datives of Interest, § 340, which add emphasis to the Nominative, § 118. "He himself saw it" means literally "He saw it *for or by himself*"

(49) **Several people, several persons:**—

Several people think that the rains are over.

The phrase "several people" is not so correct as "several persons," because "several" has a distributive force and denotes individuals, while "people" is a Collective noun.

(50) **Shortly, briefly:**—

I will write *shortly* (=in a short time).

I will write *briefly* (=in few words).

The adverb "shortly" is used to denote shortness only of time, and only of *future* time. We cannot say "He went away shortly" (a short time ago); nor can we say, "He lived there shortly" (for a short time). The adverb "briefly" is used only in the sense of shortness in *language*.

(51) **So and so, or so, so so, and so on:**—

- (a) He asked what I meant, and I told him *so and so*.
- (b) I shall return in a week *or so*.
- (c) *So so* it works: now, mistress, sit you fast.—*Dryden*.
- (d) He disliked dances, plays, picnics, *and so on*.

In (a) "so and so" is the adverbial form of the Indefinite adjective "such and such." "I told him *so and so*," might be rewritten "I gave him *such and such* an answer" (see § 347, c). These expressions are used, when the speaker does not think it necessary to enter into particulars.

In (b) "or so" is also used Indefinitely, and the sentence might be rewritten, "I shall return in a week or such-like,"—that is, a week more or less (see § 347, c).

In (c) "so so" means "fairly well," and is used when the speaker does not wish to be more precise. When the phrase is preceded by "but," it means something less than "well." "His leg is but *so so*" (*Shakespeare*),—that is, "his leg is in rather a worse state than usual."

In (d) the phrase "and so on" means "and such-like," or "etc." (*et cetera*). The adverb "on" means "forward,"—that is, to the end of the list:—"He disliked dances, plays, picnics, and such-like amusements to the end of the list."

(52) **So as to, etc.:**—

I got up at six A.M. *so as to be* certain of being in time.

This construction is elliptical, and the ellipses should be filled up as follows:—"I got up at six A.M. *so* (=in such a way) *as* (=in which way I should get up) to be certain," etc. The Infinitive in such phrases is Gerundial. See also § 385.

(53) **So kind as to**, and similar phrases:—

He was *so kind as to* take me into his house.

"He was *so* (to that extent) *kind* as (to which extent a man would be *kind*) to take me (for taking me)," etc. Here the Infinitive is Gerundial. The sentence is equivalent to, "He was *kind enough* to take me."

(54) **Somehow or other, anyhow**:—

He managed *somehow or other* to pay off his debts.

Here "how" has been substituted for the corresponding noun. "He managed *some how or other how* = in some *way* or other (*way*) to pay off his debts." (Compare the explanation given in §§ 385, 386.)

(55) **This much, so much, so much for** :—

(a) *This much* at least we can promise.

(b) He is now *so much* better that we need not be alarmed.

(c) *So much for* his courage; now as to his honesty.

In (a) "much" is used as a noun: "this much" is equivalent to "this amount," "this quantity." In (b) "much" is an adverb qualifying the adjective "better"; and "so" is another adverb qualifying "much."

In (c) the first clause written out in full would be:—"As for (=regarding) his courage, *so much* has been or can be said." Here there is a confusion between "this much" as a noun and "so much" as an adverb. The phrase "*so much*" is used in this place as a noun to some verb understood. It is generally used when the speaker or writer has been depreciating something. "This is all that can be said about his courage; now let us see what can be said about his honesty."

(56) **To be mistaken** :—

(a) You will find that you *were mistaken*.

(b) You will find that you *mistook it*.

The form of the verb in (a) is according to idiom; and this must be adhered to. The form in (b) is what we should have expected from the meaning of the verb "mistake," which is "to misapprehend, or to misunderstand." But the form of the verb in (b) is against idiom, and should therefore not be used.

(57) **To be sure** :—

Shall you go? *To be sure* I shall.

Here "to be" is the Gerundial Infinitive, and the phrase "to be sure" signifies "certainly." The phrase, "Well, to be sure!" is a form of exclamation denoting astonishment (see § 254).

(58) **Very pleased, etc. :—**

I am *very pleased* to hear this.

I am *very tired* with that long walk.

According to rule, "much" is used with *Past Participles* and "very" with *Present* ones (see § 398, b). This rule very rarely fails. Such phrases as "very pleased," "very tired," "very contented," "very dejected," are exceptions.

(59) **What was, what was not :—**

(a) *What was* my astonishment on seeing this!

(b) *What was not* my astonishment on seeing this!

These two sentences come to the same thing, in spite of the "not." The first means "How great was my astonishment," etc.; the second means "No astonishment could be greater than mine was," etc.

(60) **What with, somewhat :—**

The phrase "what with," repeated before two or more nouns, is sometimes used for enumerating a series of things :—

What with the cunning of his methods, *what with* the flattery of his tongue, and *what with* the influence of his money, he soon became the leading man in the town.

It might be supposed that "what with" is an elliptical phrase for "what *he effected* with cunning," etc. But more probably "what" is here an Indefinite pronoun used as an adverb in the sense of "partly." The compound word "somewhat" is still used sometimes as a noun signifying "something," and sometimes as an adverb signifying "to some extent" or "partly":—"I am *somewhat* tired of this book." In colloquial English we still say:—"I tell you *what*," which means "I tell you something," or "I have something to tell you." In Shakespeare we have:—

I tell you *what* (=something), Antonio.

(61) **Write you, write to you :—**

I will *write you* a letter on this matter.

I will *write to you* soon.

We can use the phrase "*write you*," when "you" is the Indirect object to the verb and is followed by a Direct object. But if there is no Direct object and the verb "write" is used Intransitively, we must say "*write to you*."

(62) *It is I*, etc.—In earlier English the phrase was “it am *ſ*”; out of this the modern form “it is I” has come:—

I am thy mortal foe, and *it am I*

That loveth so hoote (=hotly) Emily the bright.—*Chaucer*.

Thus in earlier English “*it*” is the *complement* to the verb “am,” while in Modern English it has become the *subject*. Hence any pronoun of any number or person can now be placed after “it is” as complement: as, “it is we,” “it is you,” “it is I,” “it is they.” See § 126 (c).

(63) Participle with Implied Noun or Pronoun:—

(a) Having stated our first reason, the second must now be taken up and disposed of.

(b) Defeated on all sides, his courage began to fail.

In (a) the construction cannot be defended, although it is not uncommonly used. It would be correct, if we added the words “by us” at the end of the sentence, because the participle “having stated” would then qualify the pronoun “us.”

In (b) the construction, besides being very common in practice, is defensible, because “his” = *of him*, and “defeated” qualifies the implied pronoun “him.”

(64) Adverbs repeated, as in the following examples:—

Again and again. By and by. Over and over. Over and above.

Out and out. Far and away. More and more. Worse and worse. First and foremost. Through and through.

The adverb is repeated either (a) to denote frequency or succession, as in “again and again,” “over and over”; or (b) to denote frequency combined with increased intensity, as in “more and more,” “worse and worse”; or (c) for the sake of emphasis, as in “by and by,” “over and above,” “out and out,” “far and away,” “first and foremost.”

He is *out and out*, or *far and away* (that is, very decidedly) the best student in the class.

Note.—Adjectives are sometimes similarly repeated to denote succession:—

The dishes should be served up *hot and hot* (that is, one after another, each not in succession).

The animals went out *two and two* (that is, two in succession, or two at a time). See § 352 (b).

(65) Cardinal Numerals used as Nouns:—

(a) The stars come out *by twos and threes*.—*Wordsworth*.

(b) They are all *at sixes and sevens*.

In (a) the phrase italicised means “two or three at a time.” Here the preposition “by” denotes the manner or rate at which

the stars come out: they come out two at a time, or three at a time. In (b) the phrase denotes "in a state of disorder."

(66) **Possessive Pronoun as Antecedent to a Relative** :—

Their sorrows shall be multiplied *that* run after another God.—*Old Testament*.

The antecedent to the Relative "that" must be found in the Possessive "their" = of them. The sentence could be more appropriately written :—"The sorrows of *them* that run after another God shall be multiplied." See § 341a.

(67) **Absolute Case**.—In medieval English the Absolute case was the Dative, not the Nominative :—

They have stolen away the body, *us* sleeping.—*Wyclif's Bible*.

In Milton we meet with such phrases as "me overthrown," "us dispossessed," "him destroyed," which he introduced in imitation of the classical languages. Milton, however, uses the Nominative case in other places :—

I should not lag behind or err the way, *Thou leading*.

The Nominative alone is now used absolutely; and this case is appropriate, because the Nominative noun or pronoun is the Subject to the Finite verb implied in the Participle; for the phrase "thou *leading*" is equivalent to the clause "whilst thou leadest" (see § 285 (5), Note).

(68) **Omission of "that" after "than"** :—

I will suffer myself rather than (that) he should.

It is optional with the writer or speaker either to express the "that" or to leave it out; but it is more usual to leave it out. Here "than" is a preposition, not a conjunction, and the Noun-clause "that he should suffer" is its object (see § 244).

(69) **Elliptical uses of "that" as a Relative** :—

(a) Equivalent to "when" or "in which time" :—

Now *that* he is dead we must find a successor.

The moment *that* he left the house they pursued him.

(b) Equivalent to "why" or "for which reason" :—

This is the reason *that* I told you to come.

(c) Equivalent to "with which" :—

He shouted with the loudest voice *that* he could (shout).

Note.—Sometimes the antecedent to "that" is borrowed from the verb of the preceding clause :—

Have you ever met him before? Not (a meeting) *that* I can remember.

(70) **Correlative Words in Phrases**.—These can be summed up as follows :—

(a) **The same . . . that, the same . . . as :**

This is *the same* man *that* came yesterday.

This is *the same* kind of house *as* yours.

(b) **As . . . so :**

As men sow, *so* will they also reap.

(c) **As or so . . . as :**

I am not *so* strong *as* I once was. ("So" with Negative.)

I am quite *as* strong *as* I ever was. ("As" with Affirm.)

(d) **Such . . . as :**

He is not *such* a man *as* I admire.

(e) **No sooner . . . than :**

No sooner had we left the house, *than* it began to rain.

(f) **Scarcely . . . before :**

We had *scarcely* left the house, *before* it began to rain.

(g) **Hardly . . . when :**

We had *hardly* (or *scarcely*) left the house, *when* it began to rain.

(h) **So . . . that :**

I am *so* tired *that* I cannot go any farther.

(i) **Not only . . . but or but also :**

He was *not only* accused and tried, *but* convicted.

(j) **Both . . . and :**

He is *both* a fool *and* a knave.

(k) **Either . . . or, neither . . . nor :**

Either this man sinned *or* his parents.

Neither the one *nor* the other satisfies me.

(l) **Whether . . . or :**

You must do this *whether* you like it *or* not.

(m) **Though . . . yet :**

Though murder have no tongue, *yet* will it speak.

(71) **Emphasis** is frequently indicated by a change in the natural order of words, since by putting a word out of its natural order more attention is drawn to it. Of this the following kinds of examples are common :—

(1) Placing the object before its verb instead of after it (see § 147 and § 318) :—

Silver and gold have I none.

(2) Placing the complement before its verb instead of after it (see § 153, Note 2, and § 310) :—

Strait is the gate and *narrow* is the way that leadeth unto life.

(3) Placing the adjective after its noun instead of before it (see § 306) :—

I appeal from Philip *drunk* to Philip *sober*.

(4) Placing an adverb before instead of after the verb with which it is compounded (see § 315) :—

Down went the *Royal George* with all its crew complete.

(72) **An Adverb substituted for an Adjective.**—It is the province of adjectives, not of adverbs, to qualify nouns; otherwise the distinction between adjective and adverb is destroyed. The exceptions are apparent, not real (see § 224). In Byron, however, the following phrase occurs :—

My *almost drunkenness* of heart.

This is a short way of saying "that state of my heart which I might almost describe as one of drunkenness."

Similarly in prose an adverb *appears* to qualify a noun in such phrases as the following :—

A man *asleep* = a sleeping man, or the man *that is asleep*.

The world *above* = the world *that is above*.

We cannot say "an *asleep* man," or "the *above* world," because these words are not really adjectives, but adverbs used to qualify some verb or participle understood.

"The *above* book" means "the *above*-named book," where the adverb "*above*" qualifies the participle "*named*," which may be either expressed or understood.

Note.—It has been affirmed by some that nouns can be qualified by adverbs, as is the following example :—

This man, *formerly* the possessor of much wealth, is now poor.

But the words "*formerly* the possessor" is merely a short way of saying "*who was formerly the possessor*," where *formerly* is an adverb qualifying the verb "*was*." We cannot say "*the formerly possessor*," which shows that the adverb "*formerly*" does not really qualify the noun "*possessor*," but some verb or participle understood.

(73) **An Adjective substituted for an Adverb.**—Since adjectives and adverbs are both qualifying words, an adjective qualifying the subject to a verb can be substituted for an adverb qualifying the verb itself, as has been explained in § 290. How far is this admissible in prose? and how far in poetry?

In prose and poetry alike :—

(a) When the adjective describes the state of the agent. The adjective is then an "Adverbial Adjunct" to the predicate-verb (see § 266, c) :—

He went away *sad* (that is, he was sad when he went away).

(b) When the adjective describes the effect of the action
Here again the adjective is an "Adverbial Adjunct":—

The moon shines *bright* (the moon shines, and the effect of its
shining is brightness).

Note.—This use of the adjective is *in prose* limited to monosyllables.
Thus in prose we should not say, "The moon shines *brilliant*," but
"The moon shines *brilliantly*."

In poetry only :—

(c) When the adjective is intended to describe neither the
state of the agent, nor the effect of the action, but the manner
of doing the action:—

First they praised him *soft and low*.—*Tennyson*.

(Their manner of praising him was soft and low.)

The green trees whispered *low and mild*.—*Longfellow*.

(The kind of whisper was low and mild.)

They fall *successive*, and *successive* rise.—*Pope*.

(Their mode of falling and rising is successive.)

(74) **Verb followed by Adjective.**—In such phrases the
adjective is sometimes a complement and sometimes an adverbial
adjunct to the verb. The verb may be either Transitive or In-
transitive:—

Bid fair.—The new tax *bids fair* (makes a fair or probable bid,
seems likely) to work well.

Break loose.—He allowed his passions to *break loose* (break them-
selves loose, burst forth).

Break loose.—The horse *broke loose* from the stable (forced its
way out).

Break open.—Let us *break open* the box (open it by force).

Come true.—The news has *come* (turned out to be) *true*.

Come wrong.—A good dinner never *comes wrong* (is always accept-
able) to any one.

Cut dead.—(Colloquial.) He *cut me dead* (passed me without making
any sign of recognition, with the intention of insulting me).

Cut short.—His life was *cut short* (brought to an untimely end) by
cholera.

Do wrong.—He *did wrong* (acted wrongly, made a mistake) to be-
lieve or in believing that man's word.

Drink hard.—He *drinks hard* (is a confirmed drunkard).

Fall flat.—His speech *fell flat* (produced no effect) on the audience.

Fall or run foul.—The ship *fell foul* of (struck on) the rocks.

Fall heavy.—The water-rate *falls heavy* on (is specially burdensome
to) tenants.

Fall or come short.—The result *fell short* of (was less than) our
expectations.

Fight shy.—I *fought shy* of that man (kept out of his way without
telling him that I was doing so). (Colloquial.)

Get rid or quit.—I cannot *get rid* or *quit* of this fever (get myself
rid of, throw it off).

- **Go hard.**—That man's death *went hard* with (brought much distress on) his family.
- **Go mad, etc.**—The dog *went* (became) mad. He *has gone* blind.
- **Go wrong.**—Everything *went wrong* (turned out badly) with me.
- **Hold good.**—This rule *holds good* (holds itself good, continues in force) here also.
- **Hold true.**—This saying always *holds true* (holds itself true, continues true).
- **Lay bare or open.**—He managed to *lay bare* (expose) their plots.
- **Lay waste.**—He *laid waste* (ravaged) the enemy's country.
- **Let loose.**—He *lets the dog loose* (unchains it) at nights.
- **Live fast.**—One who *lives fast* (leads a rapid, that is, dissolute life) dies early.
- **Look blank.**—He *looked blank* (seemed puzzled, disturbed, or surprised), when he was informed of his dismissal.
- **Look sharp.**—I hope you will *look sharp* (make haste, lose no time) about this.
- **Make good.**—I incurred a heavy loss through you, and so now you must *make it good* (compensate me for the loss).
- **Make merry.**—Sailors like to *make merry* (make themselves merry, have some fun) on shore.
- **Make sure.**—A cautious man will *make sure* (make himself sure) of his ground (take care that his course is a safe one).
- **Make little or light.**—He *made little* of my illness (considered it of no importance).
- **Make much.**—He *made much* of my illness (considered it serious).
- **Make too much.**—He *made too much* of my abilities (over-estimated them).
- **Make nothing.**—(a) He *made nothing* of my abilities (regarded them as worthless).
 (b) The teacher could *make nothing* of him (could not succeed with him).
- **Muster strong or in force.**—The boys *mustered strong* (mustered or collected themselves in large numbers) on that occasion.
- **Play false.**—He *played me false* (acted deceitfully towards me).
- **Put right or set right or put to rights.**—The teacher soon *put* the class *right* (put it into good order).
- **Ride rough-shod.**—He tried to *ride rough-shod* over all of us (force his own way upon us, whatever annoyance it might give us).
- **Run short.**—(a) The money *ran short* (became too little for the purpose required).
 (b) We *ran short* of money (spent all we had while we still needed it).
- **Set free.**—England *set* every slave *free* (set at liberty or released every slave).
- **Sow broadcast.**—They *sowed sedition broadcast* (scattered it widely and profusely) over the country.
- **Steer clear.**—I hope you will *steer clear* of (steer the boat clear, keep out of the way of) usurers.
- **Stop short.**—He *stopped short* in the middle of his speech (stopped suddenly, when he was expected to go on).
- **Strike dumb.**—We are *struck dumb* by this news.

Take ill.—My father *took ill* (or was taken ill, was attacked with an illness) yesterday.

Talk big.—He *talks big* (boasts, exaggerates) about himself.

Think fit.—He *thinks fit* (thinks it fit) to blame me for nothing. (This implies that he not only thinks fit to do something wrong, but that he actually does it.)

(75) **Obsolete words in phrases.**—There are some phrases in which one of the words is either obsolete (except in the phrase itself) or is used in a unique sense. In the examples given below every such word is shown in italics:—

Beck and call.—He is at your *beck* (nod or motion of the head) and call. (Hence the word “beckon.”)

By hook or by crook.—We must do this by hook or by *crook* (by some means or other).

Cheek by jowl.—I will go with thee *check by jowl*.—*Shakspeare*. (Jowl means “jaw”: “cheek by jowl” is similar in form as well as in meaning to “side by side,” in close proximity.)

Chop and change.—We go on *chopping* and changing our friends. —*L'Estrange*. (“To chop” means to barter, to give one thing for another. The colloquial equivalent to “chop” is “swop.”)

Hue and cry.—They raised a *hue* (hoot or clamour) and cry.

In fine.—In conclusion. (“Fine” means “end”; hence “finish.”)

In vogue.—This dress is much in *vogue* (fashion).

Kith and kin.—He is far from all *kith* (blood-relations) and *kin* (kinsfolk).

Learn by rote.—Do not learn anything by *rote* (by merely repeating the words and neglecting the sense).

Lie in wait.—He *lay in wait* (ambush) for the enemy.

Malice prepense.—This was done out of malice *prepense* (see § 308).

Neck and crop.—He turned him out neck and *crop* (altogether, completely). (“Crop” means the craw of a bird).

Neither chick nor child.—(“Chick” is a term of endearment for child.)

Nick of time.—He came in the *nick* (critical moment) of time.

Odds and ends.—Pick up the *odds* (scraps) and ends.

Of no avail.—Your excuses are of no *avail* (effect).

On pain of death.—(“Pain” here means “penalty.”)

Part and parcel.—(“Parcel” here means “portion.” The word is a Diminutive of “part.”)

Picking and stealing.—Keep your hands from *picking* (pilfering) and stealing.

Rack and ruin.—He went to *rack* (wrack or wreck) and ruin.

Rhyme or reason.—He did that without *rhyme* (sound) or reason; (without any valid reason).

Run a rig.—He ran a *rig* (had a frolic) that day.

Scot-free.—He got off *scot-free* (free of payment, unharmed).

Shrewd turn.—He did me a *shrewd* (ill) turn.

Shrewd blow.—He gave me a *shrewd* (severe) blow.

Sick or sorry.—This horse is never sick or *sorry* (ill). (This phrase is used only for horses.)

Spick and span.—He has a *spick and span* new coat (new as a *spike* or nail just made, and a *chip* or span of wood just chopped off).
Stand in good stead.—His kindness stood me in good *stead* (in good standing; was of great service to me).

Stark and stiff.—His body was *stark* (rigid) and stiff.

Take umbrage.—He took *umbrage* (offence) at what I said.

Tit for tat.—(Probably a corruption of "tip (or slight blow) for tap." The phrase means "blow for blow," "like for like".)

Toil and moil.—He was always *toiling* and *moiling* (labouring as a drudge).

Watch and ward.—He kept *watch* and *ward* (guard).

Widow's weeds.—The *weeds* (mourning clothes) worn by a widow.

(76) **Words in pairs.**—There are certain stock phrases, in which words of the same, or almost the same, meaning *go in pairs*. The second word has been added either to increase the force of the first by repeating its meaning, or for the sake of rhythm. Most of these words are monosyllables; but if one of them consists of two syllables, the dissyllable is always put last:—

Bag and baggage.—They were expelled *bag and baggage* (with all their belongings). (These two nouns are in the Adverbial objective.)

By fits and starts.—He did everything *by fits and starts*, but stuck to nothing long.

By leaps and bounds.—His progress is not steady, but goes *by leaps and bounds*.

Fair and square.—He was *fair and square* (just) in all his dealings.

Fire and brimstone.—He threatens us with *fire and brimstone* (fearful penalties).

Fire and fury.—His language was full of *fire and fury* (passion).

First and foremost.—We must inquire about this *first and foremost*.

Forms and ceremonies.—We cannot always neglect *forms and ceremonies*.

Free and easy.—He is very *free and easy* (unrestrained) in his manner.

Gall and wormwood.—His voice is *gall and wormwood* (a source of intense annoyance) to me.

Goods and chattels.—He took away all his *goods and chattels* with him.

Heart and soul.—He went *heart and soul* into the business.

High and mighty.—He is very *high and mighty* (haughty) in his manner.

Hole and corner.—He adopted a *hole and corner* (underhand) method.

House and home.—He was turned out of *house and home*.

(To all) intents and purposes.—He was, to all *intents and purposes*, dismissed, but nominally he resigned.

Jot or tittle.—He would not lower his price one *jot or tittle*.

(The) loaves and fishes.—He was eager for the *loaves and fishes* (emoluments) of office.

Null and void.—This ruling has now become *null and void* (invalid).

Open and above-board.—Let everything be *open and above-board* (honest and straightforward).

Over and above.—*Over and above* being lazy he is dull.

Over head and ears.—He was *over head and ears* in debt.

Pains and penalties.—Let us know what are the *pains and penalties* inflicted by the law.

Safe and sound.—He arrived home *safe and sound*.

Stuff and nonsense.—What you are saying is all *stuff and nonsense* (rubbish).

Sum and substance.—This is the *sum and substance* (pith) of the whole question.

Time and tide.—*Time and tide* wait for no man.

To hum and haw.—He could not speak without *humming and hawing* (hesitation).

• **(To be) up and doing.**—We must be *up and doing* (begin to act).

Ways and means.—Are you provided with the *ways and means* (necessary funds)?

Well and good.—If that is what you mean to do, *well and good*.

Will and pleasure.—I will act entirely according to your *will and pleasure*. (I will carry out your wishes in everything.)

Wit and wisdom.—The *wit and wisdom* (cleverness and wisdom) of this man can be seen from his writings.

With might and main.—He worked *with might and main* (as hard as he could).

77) **Words used in a bad sense.**—There are certain words and phrases which are chiefly or always used in a bad sense. Some of those in common use are given below:—

• **Abide by the consequences** (await the *evil* results).

• **Accident.**—“He met with an *accident*” (*mishap*).

• **Accomplice.**—Partner in some *crime*.

• **Addicted to some bad habit**, as gambling, intemperance.

Adventurer.—One who enters upon *rash* projects.

• **Adversary.**—A *hostile* opponent; one from whom *harm* may come.

Airs.—“He should not give himself *airs*” (*conceited* airs, a *conceited* demeanour).

Amenities.—Almost always ironical, for “rude words.”

Apprehensive of some *harm* or *injury*.

Artisan.—One who practises some *inferior* art. (One who practises a *fine* art is called an *artist*.)

Audacious.—Bold in the sense of *presumptuous* or *impudent*.

Besetting.—A *besetting sin* or *fault*.

• **Blunder.**—A *gross* or *serious* mistake.

Bode.—“This fact bodes us some *harm*.”

Boisterous.—*Rude* and *rough* as well as *strong*.

Brat.—Contemptuous word for “child.”

Break news.—To be the first to communicate *bad* news.

Broil.—A *noisy* quarrel, a *brawl*.

Brook.—Tolerate or endure something *bad*.

• **Catastrophe.**—A *disastrous* conclusion.

Coalition of men of *divergent* or *opposite* views; and hence it means a kind of *partnership* which is not *homogeneous*.

- **Commit.**—To do something *wrong*; as “to commit a fault.”
- Conceit.**—An *extravagant* notion.
- Concoct.**—To devise a plan for an *evil* purpose.
- Condign.**—Used only to qualify “*punishment*.” (Not used to qualify “*reward*.”)
- Consume.**—Consummate *nonsense*; a consummate *coward*.
- Conventional.**—Guided by fashion, and not by judgment or taste.
- **Counterfeit.**—To imitate for a *dishonest* purpose.
- Covert.**—Hidden for the sake of *disguise*.
- Cowardly.**—Timid to an *unworthy* degree.
- **Credulity.**—A *foolish* readiness to believe anything.
- Cunning.**—*Crooked* cleverness employed for an *evil* purpose.
- Demagogue.**—An *unprincipled* popular leader.
- Demerit.**—*Ill* desert on account of *faults* committed.
- Demure.**—*Affecting* to be modest and retiring.
- Desert.**—Abandon something which ought not to have been left.
- Despot.**—A *tyrannical* kind of absolute ruler.
- Dole.**—A *scanty* allowance or share.
- Doom.**—To consign to an *evil* fate.
- **Effeminate.**—Womanish, unmanly. (“*Feminine*” and “*womanly*” are used in a good sense.)
- Egregious.**—Remarkable in a *bad* sense; as “*egregious folly*.”
- Equivocal.**—*Intentionally* ambiguous or misleading.
- **Fabricate.**—To invent with a *bad* motive.
- Facetious.**—Jocular in a *foolish* kind of way.
- Faction.**—A political cabal.
- Fain.**—Willing to do a thing, not from choice, but under necessity.
- Fancy.**—Imagination when it is not guided by reason.
- **Fine figure.**—“He cut a fine figure (*ridiculous* or *disgraceful* figure) in that matter.” (The phrase “*fine figure*” is ironical.)
- Flagrant.**—Remarkable in a *bad* sense; as “*a flagrant blunder*.”
- Forge.**—To produce something that is not genuine; as “*to forge a will*.”
- Forsake.**—The same meaning as “*desert*.”
- Forsooth.**—In truth (said ironically).
- Fulsome.**—Full or excessive, so as to produce *disgust*; as “*fulsome flattery*.”
- Garble.**—“To garble a quotation”: to separate it from its context and thus put a false meaning on it.
- Ghost.**—A spectre or goblin. (It once meant the soul or spirit.)
- Glaring.**—Conspicuous for something *evil*; as “*a glaring error*.”
- Gossip.**—An *idle* talker; or *idle* talk.
- Gross.**—Bulky combined with the sense of *coarse* and *vulgar*.
- Grotesque.**—Irregular in the sense of “*extravagant*,” “*whimsical*.”
- Hasty.**—Quick to a *fault*; rash, easily excited; impetuous.
- Homely.**—Domestic in the sense of plain, common, unpolished.
- **Impertinent.**—Saucy; (it once meant “*irrelevant*”).
- Implicated.**—Involved in, or mixed up with, something *evil*.
- Inveterate.**—Used for something *bad*, as “*an inveterate liar*,” “*an inveterate enemy*.”
- **Legend.**—A story not supposed to be as true as a tradition.

Lie.—A falsehood uttered for the sake of deceiving or doing harm.
Loiter.—To linger at a time when greater haste should have been made.

Lonely.—Not merely alone, but *depressed* or *sad* from being alone.

Luck.—“He was too late, as luck (=bad luck) would have it.”

Lumber.—Household stuff of little or no value.

Maudlin.—Easily moved to tears; sentimental to the extent of *weakness*.

Minion.—An *unworthy* favourite.

Names.—“He should not call me names” (=bad names).

Notorious.—Possessing an *evil* reputation.

Obsequious.—Complaisant to the extent of servility.

Officious.—Busy with other men’s affairs; troubling men with attentions, which are not asked for and not desired.

Palliate.—To throw a cloak or veil over something which ought not to be concealed; hence to make excuses for faults.

Peculiar.—Often used in the sense of strange or eccentric; as “a peculiar man,” “a man of *peculiar* tastes.”

• **Perpetrate.**—This verb is used only of *crimes*.

• **Plausible.**—Apparently, but not really, worthy of applause or praise: specious; colourable.

Plight.—A *sad* or *painful* condition. “He is in a *sad* *plight*.”

• **Pocket.**—To put into one’s pocket *fraudulently*; as “he pocketed the money.” Or to submit patiently to an insult; as “he pocketed the insult.”

• **Possessed.**—“He fought like one possessed” (that is, possessed of *evil* spirits).

• **Prone** to some vice or weakness; as “he is prone to idleness, intemperance,” etc. (apt to become idle, intemperate, etc.).

• **Prejudice.**—A judgment formed *against* some one without evidence.

• **Retaliate.**—Pay back an *injury*; the opposite to “recompense, or reward.”

Richly.—“He *richly deserved* the punishment.” This phrase is always used in reference to something undesirable.

Sanctimonious.—Said of one who makes an *affection* of godliness.

• **Sensual.**—That which appeals to the *lower* or *carnal* senses.

Sentimental.—*Affectively* tender or emotional.

Serve a man right.—“This serves him right.” Always in reference to some *evil* consequences which a man has deserved through his own *fault*.

• **Servitude.**—Service of a *slavish* kind.

Sheer; as “sheer nonsense,” “sheer folly.” The word “sheer” is always used in reference to something bad. We never say “sheer virtue,” but “perfect or pure virtue.”

Shrewd.—Clever, but often in a sense implying some dishonesty.

Soft.—Often used in the sense of “effeminate,” “unmanly.”

Specious.—Same meaning as “plausible.” “A *specious* (apparently sound) argument.”

Stickler.—One who sticks to a *small* point *perversely* or *obstinately*.

Tempt.—To put a man on his trial with the intention of *seducing* him, or leading him into a trap.

To a degree.—“He is insolent, or dull, or dishonest *to a degree*.”

(that is, to a high degree). (This phrase is usually applied to some *bad* quality.)

Totally.—Always used for something bad; as “totally incompetent,” “totally blind.”

Trivial.—Ordinary in the sense of *paltry*. “A trivial or commonplace subject.”

Usurer.—One who charges *extortionate* interest.

Utter.—“An utter *fool*”; “an utter *failure*.” Always used for something bad.

Utterly.—Same meaning as “totally.”

Versatile.—One who is changed too quickly. Unstable, unsteady.

Volable.—Said of a fluent, but rather *empty*, talker.

Wiseacre.—Always used ironically, to denote a fool.

(78) Adjectives understood.—There are some nouns which must be taken in a good sense, when no adjective is placed before them to denote the opposite:—

Age.—He is of (*full*) age (=grown up). He is under (*full*) age (=a minor).

Breeding.—He is a man of (*high*) breeding (=a well-bred man).

Condition.—The horse is out of (*good*) condition (=is thin).

Family.—He is a man of (*high*) family.

Feeling.—He is a man of (*tender* and *good*) feeling.

Form.—The boatmen pulled together in form (=in *good* form or style).

Order.—Everything is in (*proper*) order.

Parts.—He is a man of parts (=of *good* qualities or abilities).

Place.—Everything was in place (=in its *right* place). Your conduct is quite out of place (=out of its *right* place, improper).

Position.—He is a man of (*good*) position.

Principle.—He is a man of (*high*) principle.

Quality.—He is a person of (*good* or *high*) quality.

Rank.—Men of (*high*) rank.

Taste.—His remark was not in taste (=in *good* taste).

Temper.—He is out of temper (=ordinary or *good* temper). (But “*in temper*” or “*in a temper*” means in *bad* temper; as, “He said that *in a temper*, =in a rage.”)

Thing.—That was just the thing (=the *right* thing) to say.

Time.—He arrived in time (=in the *proper* or *right* time).

(79) Elliptical phrases.—The following are of common occurrence:—

And no wonder.—He has been acquitted, *and no wonder* (=and it is no wonder that he has been acquitted).

And welcome.—You may take my book, *and welcome* (=and be welcome to it).

As ever.—He is as idle *as ever* (=as he ever was before).

As usual.—He is idle *as usual* (=in the manner which is usual to him; see p. 259).

Easier said than done=this is easier *when it is said than when it is done*.

If not sooner.—I shall get there by four, *if not sooner* (=if I do not get there sooner).

Leave well alone.—We had better leave *well* (=what is well) alone.

Lay about one with a whip.—He laid (*blows*) about him with a whip.

No sooner said than done = *it was* no sooner said than *it was* done.

Practice makes perfect = makes a man perfect.

Provided.—I am willing, *provided* (=it being provided that) you are.

Ride and tie.—We had better *ride and tie* (that is, one of us ride some way forward, and then tie the horse for the other to have his turn of riding).

Right or wrong.—I intend to go, *right or wrong* (=whether it is right or wrong to do so).

Right and left.—He hit out *right and left* (=to the right hand and the left, on all sides of him).

To see fair play = to see that the play or playing is fair.

Thanks.—He recovered, *thanks* to the doctor (=our thanks are due to the doctor).

Whether or no.—We must do as we are told, *whether or no* (= whether we like it or no).

Will he, will he.—He must take service *will he will he* (=whether he is willing or not).

Note.—“*Will I, will I,*” and “*will ye, will ye,*” have been similarly used for the first and second persons; and all three forms or persons have been corrupted into “*willy nilly*.”

Would-be.—The *would-be* thief (=the man who would or wished or intended to be a thief, but was prevented from being one).

(80) **Specialised expressions.**—Phrases in which some word is restricted to a certain connection, so that no other word can be put in its place:—

Bevy of ladies.—We never say “a bevy of gentlemen.”

Bosom friend.—We never speak of “a *breast friend*” or “a *heart friend*.”

Broad daylight.—We do not speak of “broad *midnight*,” but “bright moonlight.”

Drawn battle.—We do not speak of “a *drawn combat*” or “a *drawn fight*.”

Fast friend.—We do not speak of “a *fast enemy*” or “*fast foe*.”

Foregone conclusion.—We do not speak of “a *foregone inference*” or “a *foregone result*.”

Golden age.—We do not speak of “the *golden time or period*.”

Gratuitous insult.—We do not speak of “*gratuitous abuse*.”

Green old age.—We do not say that a man is in a “*verdant old age*.”

Honest penny.—We do not speak of “turning an *honest sixpence*.”

Implicit confidence, faith, or reliance; but not *implicit love, hate, etc.*

Leading question.—We can “put a *leading question*,” but not a “*leading inquiry*.”

Livelong day or night.—We cannot say “the *livelong hour, or week, or year*.”

Maiden speech (the first speech made).—We cannot say “a maiden *sing*” or “a *virgin* speech.”

Market rate, market value.—We cannot substitute “trade” for “market.”

Moot point.—We can speak of “an open question,” but not “a moot *question*.”

Open question.—We cannot speak of “an open *point*.”

Out of doors.—We never say “out of *door*.”

Retrench expenditure.—We do not say “retrench *trade* or *business*.”

Sharp practice (=knavery).—We do not combine “sharp” in the same sense with any other noun.

Short cut=a crosspath which shortens the distance.

Sinews of war (money).—We speak of “the sinews,” but not of the *muscles* of war.

Single combat.—We never speak of “a single *fight*, or *conflict*, or *contest*.”

Slow coach.—We call a man “a slow *coach*,” but not “a slow *carriage*.”

Special pleading.—We do not speak of “special *argumentation* or *advocacy*.”

Standing army (=permanent army).—We never say “a standing *navy*.”

Standing joke (=permanent joke).—We never say “a standing *jest*.”

Standing nuisance.—We may say “a *constant* trouble,” but not “a *standing trouble*.”

Stone's throw.—We never say “a stone's *fling*” or “the *throw* of a stone.”

Storm signal.—We never speak of “a *tempest* signal” or “a *storm warning*.”

Stubborn fact.—We never speak of “an *obstinate* fact” or “a *stubborn truth*.”

Stump orator.—We never say “a *stump speaker*” or “a *stump rhetorician*.”

Sworn friends.—We speak of “an *avowed* enemy,” but not of “a *sworn enemy*.”

Tall talk.—We never speak of “*lofty* talk” or “*tall professions*.”

Watery grave.—We do not speak of “a *watery tomb* or *watery burial*.”

(81) **Phrases used as Adjectives**.—These phrases are all colloquial.

A <i>happy-go-lucky</i> (haphazard) plan.	A <i>go-ahead</i> (pushing) man.
An <i>out-of-the-way</i> (secluded) place.	A <i>stick-in-the-mud</i> (not pushing) man.
<i>Out-of-doors</i> (open air) work.	An <i>upside-down</i> (inverted) notion.
A <i>hole-and-corner</i> (<u>clandestine</u>) method.	A <i>dog-in-the-manger</i> (selfish) policy.
A <i>stay-at-home</i> (domestic) person.	A <i>jack-in-the-box</i> (<u>volatile</u>) man.

PART III.—THE TRANSFORMATION AND SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

CHAPTER XXI.—DIRECT AND INDIRECT NARRATION.

422. When the verb in one sentence reports what is said by some speaker in another sentence, the verb in the first sentence is called the *reporting verb*, and what is said in the second sentence is called the *reported speech*; as—

<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
My father said,	"It is time to go away."

423. Now, there are two different ways in which the reported speech may be expressed:—

It may either (a) repeat the *actual words* used by the speaker, or (b) it may give their *substance*.

424. When the reported speech repeats the *actual words*, this is called **Direct Narration**, as in the above example.

<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
My father said,	"It is time to go away."

Note 1.—This is the mode generally used in the Vernaculars of India. But in English the sentences are not joined by "that."

Note 2.—In all cases of Direct Narration the reported speech must be marked off by commas, as in the above example.

425. When the reported speech gives the *substance* of the words used by the speaker, and not the actual words, this is called **Indirect Narration**; as—

My father said *that* it was time to go away.

Note.—In this construction the sentences are joined by "that."

426. *The tense of the reporting verb is never changed.* But the tense of the reported speech is liable to certain changes in passing from the Direct Narration to the Indirect; and these depend on the tense of the reporting verb.

427. There are two main rules regarding the change of tense in the reported speech ; and these are similar to the rules given in § 394 about the Sequence of Tenses :—

RULE I.—*If the reporting verb is a Past tense, the tense of the verb in the reported speech must be changed to one or other of the four forms of the Past tense.*

RULE II.—*If the reporting verb is a Present or Future tense, the tense of the verb in the reported speech is not changed at all.*

Rule II.

428. Rule II. is so simple, that we can dispose of it at once. By this rule the reporting verb is assumed to be in some Present or Future tense ; and whenever this occurs, the tense of the verb in the reported speech is *not changed at all* in passing from the Direct to the Indirect Narration.

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i> (Present Tense.)	<i>Reported Speech.</i> (Any Tense.)
{ Direct.	He has told you,	"I am coming."
{ Indirect.	He has told you	that he is coming.
{ Direct.	He says to his friend,	"I have been reading."
{ Indirect.	He says to his friend	that he has been reading.
	(Future Tense.)	(Any Tense.)
{ Direct.	He will say,	"Thou hast spoken falsely."
{ Indirect.	He will tell thee	that thou hast spoken falsely.
{ Direct.	He will say,	"The boy was lazy."
{ Indirect.	He will tell them	that the boy was lazy.

429. Sometimes there is an uncertainty as to whether the pronoun "he" in the reported speech refers to the person speaking or to the person spoken to :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
Direct.	{ Gobind says to Cleon,	"I am wrong."
	{ Gobind says to Cleon,	"You are wrong."
Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon	that he (who ?) is wrong.

How is this uncertainty about the "he" to be removed ? This can only be done by inserting the name of the person intended after "he," as in the examples given below :—

	<i>Reporting Verb.</i>	<i>Reported Speech.</i>
{ Direct.	Gobind says to Cleon,	"I am wrong."
{ Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon	that he (Gobind) is wrong.
{ Direct.	Gobind says to Cleon,	"You are wrong."
{ Indirect.	Gobind says to Cleon	that he (Cleon) is wrong.

Convert the following from the Direct to the Indirect Narration :—

The judge will say to you, "You are innocent of that crime."
 All men declare, "He has never been defeated."
 He has told them, "I did not commit this fault."
 He is still declaring, "You are the man who did it."
 He has been saying all day, "I am tired of work."
 I shall tell him plainly, "You cannot come here again."
 I shall always affirm, "He, and not I, is the guilty man."
 He says every day, "This climate will not suit my health, I must go away as soon as I can."
 The judge informs the court, "The man is guilty and will be hanged in four days' time."
 The man has confessed, "I am the guilty man, and deserve the punishment."

Rule I.

430. For the working out of Rule I. in detail, the following special rules must be observed :—

(a) The Present tense (in the reported speech) must be changed to its *corresponding* Past form.

(b) The Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) is often, but not necessarily, changed to the Past Perfect.

(c) The Past Continuous (in the reported speech) must be changed to the Past Perfect Continuous.

431. *Special Rule (a).*—Change the Present tense (in the reported speech) into its *corresponding* Past form.

Thus *shall* is changed into *should*; *will* is changed into *would*; *may* is changed into *might*; *can* is changed into *could*; *come* is changed into *came*; *is coming* is changed into *was coming*; *has come* is changed into *had come*; *has been coming* is changed into *had been coming*.

Reporting Verb. *Reported Speech.*

{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>shall</i> come"	Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>should</i> come	Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>will</i> come"	Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>would</i> come	Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>may</i> come"	Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>might</i> come	Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>can</i> come".	Present.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>could</i> come	Past.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>comes</i> "	Pres. Indef.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>came</i>	Past Indef.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The man <i>is coming</i> "	Pres. Contin.
{ Indirect.	He said	that the man <i>was coming</i>	Past Contin.

Reporting Verb. Reported Speech.

<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The man <i>has come</i> " . . .	Pres. Perfect.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the man <i>had come</i> . . .	Past Perfect.
<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The man <i>has been coming</i> " . . .	Pres. Per. Con.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the man <i>had been coming</i> . . .	Past Per. Con.

Examples.

Direct.—And Jacob said: "It is enough; my son Joseph is yet alive; I will go and see him before I die."—*Old Testament*.

Indirect.—And Jacob said that it *was* enough; that his son Joseph *was* yet alive, and that he *would* go and see him before he *died*.

Direct.—And David's anger was greatly kindled, and he said, "The man who *hath done* this thing *deserveth* to die, and he *shall* restore the lamb fourfold."—*Old Testament*.

Indirect.—And David said that the man who *had* done this thing *deserved* to die, and that he *should* restore the lamb fourfold.

432. Special Rule (b).—Change the Past Indefinite (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect:—

Reporting Verb. Reported Speech.

<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The man <i>came</i> at six" . . .	Past Indef.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the man <i>had come</i> at six . . .	Past Perfect.
<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The rain <i>fell</i> yesterday" . . .	Past Indef.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the rain <i>had fallen</i> yes- terday	Past Perfect.

433. Special Rule (c).—Change the Past Continuous (in the reported speech) into the Past Perfect Continuous:—

Reporting Verb. Reported Speech.

<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The man <i>was coming</i> " . . .	Past Contin.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the man <i>had been coming</i> . . .	Past Perf. Con.
<i>Direct.</i>	He said, "The rain <i>was falling</i> yester- day"	Past Contin.
<i>Indirect.</i>	He said that the rain <i>had been fall- ing</i> yesterday	Past Perf. Con.

(1) Convert the following sentences from Direct to Indirect:—

We said to him, "The weather is stormy, and the way is long."

He said to us, "The carriage has come, and we shall start soon."

The teacher told us, "The prize will be presented to-morrow."

He said to me, "The rain has been falling since daybreak, and you cannot go."

We said to him, "Your fault will be pardoned, if you confess it."

He said to me, "I am glad to tell you that you are pardoned."

He said, "The man has started, but he has not yet come."

We heard him say, "I will agree to what you propose, if you sign this."

He said to me, "You are mistaken; you will not go to-day."

Hasain said to me, "I shall leave this place, as soon as I can."

Hasain said to me, "You will be tired before you arrive."

Hasain said, "Our friend arrived yesterday, but will go to-day." My son exclaimed, "Some one has taken the book I was reading." He made a promise, "I will come, if I can."

He said, "I have been very ill, but am now better."

Pilate replied to the Jews, "What I have written, I have written."

He said to me, "You are guilty, and I am innocent."

They said, "The boy is hiding in the place where we left him."

They said, "The boy will soon be found; and we will bring him."

(2) Convert the following sentences from Indirect to Direct:—

He made them understand that he would soon return.

He told them that he had been robbed of the book which he had bought.

He said that he was very sorry for the fault he had committed.

They all said to him that he deserved to be pardoned.

They affirmed that he was the best worker they had seen.

He admitted that he had not worked so hard as Ram had done.

He heard them say that he did not deserve the prize.

He promised them that he would do it as soon as he could.

They said that he deserved their thanks for all he had done.

All who heard this said that he was speaking the truth.

He said that he had been three years in jail, and yet was innocent.

They told him they would never believe what he said.

He replied that he would prove what he had said to be true.

My brother told me that he had been reading all day.

My father told me that I was wrong and would be fined.

I replied that if my fault was proved I would pay the fine.

I admitted that I had acted foolishly in what I did.

434. There is one exception to Rule I. similar to that described in § 395 for the Sequence of Tenses.

If the reported speech relates to some *universal* or *habitual* fact, then the Present Indefinite in the reported speech is *not* changed into the corresponding Past, but remains exactly as it was:—

Past tense.

Present tense.

{ Direct.	He said,	"We <i>cannot</i> be quite happy in this life."
{ Indirect.	He said	that we <i>cannot</i> be quite happy in this life.
{ Direct.	He said,	"The earth <i>moves</i> round the sun."
{ Indirect.	He said	that the earth <i>moves</i> round the sun.
{ Direct.	He said,	"God <i>rules</i> and <i>governs</i> all things."
{ Indirect.	He said	that God <i>rules</i> and <i>governs</i> all things.
{ Direct.	He reminded me,	"When the cat <i>is</i> away, the mice <i>play</i> ."
{ Indirect.	He reminded me	that when the cat <i>is</i> away, the mice <i>play</i> .

435. In the reported speech, when the *Present* tense is changed into the *Past* by Rule I., an adjective, verb, or

adverb expressing *nearness* is similarly changed into one expressing *distance*.

Thus as a general rule we change:—

Now	into then.	To-day	into that day.
This or these	,, that or those.	To-morrow	,, next day.
Hither	,, thither.	Yesterday	,, the previous day.
Here	,, there.	Last night	,, the previous night.
Hence	,, thence	Ago	,, before.
Thus	,, so.	Now	,, then.
Come	,, yo.		

Reporting Verb.		Reported Speech.
{ Direct.	He said.	“I will leave you now.”
{ Indirect.	He said	that he would leave them then.
{ Direct.	He said.	“I will come here.”
{ Indirect.	He said.	that he would go there.
{ Direct.	He said.	“I have seen this man.”
{ Indirect.	He said	that he had seen that man.
{ Direct.	He said,	“I saw this man long ago.”
{ Indirect.	He said	that he had seen that man long before.

But if “this,” “here,” “now,” etc., refers to some object, place, or time that is present to the speaker during the delivery of the speech, then no change of adjective or adverb is made in the reported speech.

Reporting Verb.		Reported Speech.
{ Direct.	Gobind said,	“This is my coat.”
{ Indirect.	Gobind said	that this (the coat in his hand) was his coat.
{ Direct.	Gobind said,	“I will do it now or never.”
{ Indirect.	Gobind said	that he would do it now or never.

436. Interrogative Sentences.—When the reported speech is an Interrogative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb “say” or “tell” is changed into “ask” or “inquire.”

Reporting Verb.		Reported Question.
{ Direct.	He said to me,	“What is the shortest way back?”
{ Indirect.	He inquired of me	what was the shortest way back.
{ Direct.	He said to me,	“Where are you going?”
{ Indirect.	He asked me	where I was going.
{ Direct.	He said to him,	“Why do you stop here?”
{ Indirect.	He asked him	why he stopped there.
{ Direct.	He said to us,	“Are you going away to-day?”
{ Indirect.	He inquired of us	whether we were going that day.
{ Direct.	He said to me,	“Why did you strike me?”
{ Indirect.	He demanded of me	why I had struck him.

437. Imperative Sentences.—When the reported speech is an Imperative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb “say” or

“tell” must be changed to some verb signifying a *command*, or a *precept*, or an *entreaty*, and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

In its passage from the Direct Narration to the Indirect, the Imperative mood must be replaced by the *Infinitive*.

Reporting Verb.

Reported Imperative.

{ Direct.	He said to his servants,	“ Go away at once.”	} Command.
{ Indirect.	He ordered his servants	to go away at once.	
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	“ Work steadily.”	} Precept.
{ Indirect.	He advised his friend	to work steadily.	
{ Direct.	He said to the student,	“ Do not sit there.”	} Prohibition.
{ Indirect.	He forbade the student	to sit there.	
{ Direct.	He said to his master,	“ Pardon me, sir.”	} Entreaty.
{ Indirect.	He begged his master	to pardon him.	
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	“ Please lend me your book.”	} Request.
{ Indirect.	He asked his friend	to be kind enough to lend him his book.	

Whenever a subordinate clause is attached to an Imperative sentence, the tense of the verb in the subordinate clause is regulated by the tense of the reporting verb; (see Rule I. in § 430).

Reporting Verb.

Reported Speech.

{ Direct.	He said to his servant,	“ Do as I tell you.”
{ Indirect.	He ordered his servant	to do as he told him.
{ Direct.	He said to his friend,	“ Wait here till I return.”
{ Indirect.	He begged his friend	to wait there till he returned.

438. Exclamatory Sentences.—When the reported speech consists of an Exclamatory or Optative sentence (§ 2), the reporting verb “say” or “tell” must be changed to some such verb as “exclaim,” “cry out,” “pray,” etc., and the student must select the verb best suited to the sense or context.

Reporting Verb.

Reported Exclamation.

{ Direct.	He said,	“ Hurrah! my friend is come.”
{ Indirect.	He exclaimed with de- light,	that his friend had come.
{ Direct.	He said to them all,	“ Good-bye, my friends ! ”
{ Indirect.	He bade good-bye	to all his friends.
{ Direct.	He said,	“ May God pardon this sinner ! ”
{ Indirect.	He prayed that God	would pardon that sinner.
{ Direct.	He said,	“ Alas! how foolish I have been ! ”
{ Indirect.	He confessed with regret	that he had been very foolish.

I. In the following examples an assertion, a question, and an imperative are mixed up in the same speech :—

1. **Direct.**—And he said, “I will arise and go to my father, and will say unto him : Father, I have sinned against heaven and before thee, and am no more worthy to be called thy son : make me as one of thy hired servants.”—*New Testament*.

Indirect.—And he said that he would arise and go to his father, and would confess that he had sinned against heaven and against him, and was no more worthy to be called his son ; and that he would entreat his father to make him one of his hired servants.

2. **Direct.**—“What is this strange outcry ?” said Socrates ; “ I sent the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in this way ; for I have heard that a man should die in peace. Be quiet then and have patience.”

Indirect.—Socrates inquired of them what that strange outcry was. He reminded them that he had sent the women away mainly in order that they might not offend in that way ; for he had heard that a man should die in peace. He begged them therefore to be quiet and have patience.

3. **Direct.**—The teacher became angry with the student and said, “Why have you again disturbed the class in this way ? I have told you before, that when I am speaking, you should be silent. Leave the room, and do not return again to-day.”

Indirect.—The teacher became angry with the student and inquired of him why he had again disturbed the class in that way. He reminded him that he had told him before that he (the student) should be silent when he (the master) was speaking. He ordered him therefore to leave the room, and forbade him to return again that day.

II. Change the following from Direct to Indirect :—

1. And Reuben said unto them, “Shed no blood ; cast Joseph into this pit that is in the wilderness, but lay no hand upon him.”—*Old Testament*.

2. And Judah said unto his brethren, “What profit is it, if we slay our brother and conceal his blood ? Come, let us sell him to the Ishmaelites, and let not our hand be upon him ; for he is our brother and our flesh.”—*Old Testament*.

3. Joseph said to James, “I can tell you what strikes me as the most useful machine in the world.” James replied, “Can you, Joseph ? I should like to hear of it. What is it used for ?”

4. “What do you mean ?” asked the man ; “how can a rope be used for binding flour ?” “A rope may be used for anything,” replied the man, “when I do not wish to lend it.”

5. Once the rich man said to his poorer brother, “Why do you not enter the service of the king, so that you may relieve yourself from the baseness of labour ?”

6. Finding no remedy, he said to himself, “It is better to die than to live in such misery as I am compelled to suffer from a master who treats me and always has treated me so unkindly.”

7. All her maidens watching said, “She must weep, or she will die.”—*Tennyson*.

8. And they said one to another, "We are verily guilty concerning our brother, in that we saw the distress of his soul, when he besought us, and we would not hear: therefore is this distress come upon us."—*Old Testament*.

9. The violent man said, "What violence have I done? What anger have I been guilty of?" Then the others laughed and said to him, "Why should we speak? You have given us ocular proof of your violent temper."

10. And Nathan said unto David, "Thou art the man."

11. The robber said to Alexander, "I am thy captive: I must hear what thou art pleased to say, and endure what thou art pleased to inflict. But my soul is unconquered; and if I reply at all to thy reproaches, I will reply to thee like a free man."

12. "You are old, Father William," the young man cried,

"The locks that are left you are grey;
You are hale, Father William, a hale old man;
Now tell me the reason, I pray."

13. "I am sorry indeed," replied the king, "that my vessel is already chosen; and I cannot therefore sail with the son of the man who served my father."—*Dickens*.

14. He cried to them in agony, "Row back at any risk! I cannot bear to leave her behind to be drowned."—*Dickens*.

15. He made a promise to the king's surgeon, saying:—"Bleed the king to death with this lancet, and I will give you a thousand pieces of gold; and when I ascend the throne, you shall be my chief minister."

III. Change the following from Indirect to Direct:

1. Damon, before his execution, requested but one favour from Dionysius, which was that he might be permitted to visit his wife and children, who were at that time a considerable distance from him, promising faithfully to return on the day appointed.

2. This Dionysius refused to grant, unless some person could be found who would consent to suffer death in his stead, if he did not perform his promise.

3. In a short speech Pythias told the surrounding multitude that his dear friend, Damon, would soon arrive; but he hoped not before his own death had saved a life so dear as Damon's was to his family, his friends, and his country.

4. He sent his compliments to Francis, Clavering, and Monson, and charged them to protect Raja Guru Das, who was about to become the head of the Brahmins of Bengal.

5. The governor of the town then called out with a loud voice, and ordered Androcles to explain to them how a savage and hungry lion could thus in a moment have forgotten its innate disposition, and be converted all of a sudden into a harmless animal.

6. Androcles then explained to them that that very lion, which was standing before them, had been his friend and partner in the woods, and had for that reason spared his life, as they now saw.

7. Socrates then suggested to Glaucon that the entire abolition of the guards which he (Glaucon) recommended could not remedy the evils which he desired to remove, and he inquired of Glaucon whether

he knew by personal examination that the guards did their work as badly as he imagined.

8. When he reached home, his father asked him where his ship was and what had become of his merchandise. The son in reply told him what had happened,—how he had given up his vessel with its cargo, and had taken in exchange the slaves and set them free, and how he had consented to take this girl back with him and make her his wife.

9. When they asked Thales what thing in the world was more universal than anything else, he replied that Hope was the most universal thing, because Hope remained with those who had nothing else left.

10. When Solon and Periander were sitting together over their cups, Periander, finding that Solon was more silent than usual, asked him whether he was silent for want of words or because he was a fool. Solon told him in reply that no fool could be silent over his cups.

CHAPTER XXII.—THE TRANSFORMATION OF SENTENCES.

To transform a sentence is to change it from one grammatical form to another without altering its sense. Of this process one important example has been given in the previous chapter, viz. the conversion of sentences from the Direct to the Indirect narration, and *vice versa*.

Other examples of the conversion or transformation of sentences are given in the following sections:—

(1) *Sentences containing the adverb “too.”* These may be rewritten in the following or other forms:—

{ He is *too* honest to accept a bribe.
He is *so* honest that he *will not* accept a bribe.

Rewrite the following sentences so as to remove the adverb “too” without altering or weakening the sense:—

1. This news is *too* good to be true.
2. That sight was *too* dreadful to be seen.
3. Drinking water cannot be *too* pure.
4. Be not *too* eager for praise.
5. A man may be *too* lucky, if it leads to his becoming proud or selfish.
6. He was *too* much given to idleness.
7. A man who has received a kindness cannot be *too* grateful for it.
8. He was *too* much distressed to be able to speak.
9. The sun is *too* hot for us to go out at present.

10. You are *too* ignorant of the subject to understand what you are saying.

11. His will is *too* strong to bend, and *too* proud to learn.
12. *Too* many cooks spoil the broth.
13. He reached the station *too* late to catch the train.
14. This sad news is *too* true.
15. It is never *too* late to mend.
16. This fact is *too* evident to require proof.

(2) *Modes of expressing a condition.* These may be summed up as follows; but they are not all equally suitable for the same context:—

(a) By the conjunction "if" or "unless":—

I would do this, *if* you allowed me.

I will do this, *if* you allow me.

I will not do this, *unless* you allow me.

(b) By a conjunctional phrase:—

In case you give me leave, I will start at once.

But that he is (=if he were not) in debt, he would leave this country.

(c) By an absolute participle used as a conjunction:—

Supposing you are taken ill, the doctor lives close by.

Provided or *provided that* you consent, I will pay my schooling fee next week.

(d) By an Imperative sentence coupled with an Assertive one:—

Take care of the pence, *and* the pounds *will take* care of themselves.

(e) By the conjunction "if" understood:—

Had he (=if he had) met me, he would have known me.

Should he meet me, he would know me.

Should you be feeling ill, you can leave off work.

(f) By the preposition "but" followed by a phrase as object:—

But for your help (except through your help=if it had not been otherwise through your help), I should have been ruined.

(g) By an Interrogative sentence, followed by an Imperative one:—

Have you paid your fare? *then* come in. (Come in, if you have paid your fare.)

(h) By the phrase "one more":—

One more such loss, and we are ruined. (If we suffer *one more* such loss, we are ruined.)

(i) By the phrase "were to," etc., preceded by "if":—

If he *were to* see me, he would know me at once.

Rewrite the following sentences in the manner indicated below :—

1. Are you not tired of doing nothing? then begin at once to teach your younger brothers. *Change to (a).*
2. One more word, and I will send you out of the room. *Change to (a).*
3. Supposing the house catches fire, we have plenty of water for extinguishing the flames. *Change to (b), (i), and (e).*
4. If the rain does not fall in a day or two, the young crops will be burnt up. *Change to (b) and (c).*
5. Had you been more careful, such a calamity would not have befallen us. *Change to (a) and (c).*
6. But for your interference, everything would have gone smoothly on. *Change to (a) and (e).*
7. If I were to pay you what you deserve, you would get nothing. *Change to (a).*
8. If you persevere, you will succeed in the end. *Change to (d).*
9. You may have the loan of this book so that you return it within a week. *Change to (a) and (c).*
10. If you are in debt to any one, you cannot be appointed to this post. *Change to (g) and (e).*
11. Provided we are all agreed, the resolution can at once be passed. *Change to (a) and (g).*
12. If he had not promised to sell that house, he would not now part with it. *Change to (f).*
13. If such a misfortune befalls us again, we must go to the insolvent court. *Change to (b), (e), and (h).*
14. But that he was ill, he would certainly have come out first. *Change to (a) and (e).*

(3) *Modes of expressing a concessional or contrasting clause.*
These can be summed up as follows :—

(a) By the conjunction "though" :—

He is honest, *though* or *although* he is poor.

(b) By the conjunction "as" :—

Poor *as* he is, he is honest.

Note.—Remember that when "as" is used in a concessional sense, it must be preceded by some adjective, participle, or adverb.

(c) By the Relative adverb "however" followed by some adjective or adverb :—

However rich he may be, he is never contented.

However often he may try, he will never succeed.

(d) By the phrases "at the same time," "all the same" :—

There is some force in what you say; *at the same time* we adhere to our own opinions, or we adhere to our own opinions *all the same*.
(*Although* there is some force, etc., yet we adhere, etc.)

(e) By an absolute participle followed by a Noun-clause.—

Admitting that he is not naturally clever, he might yet have been more industrious.

(f) By the phrase "for all that" followed by a Noun-clause :—

He will not trust you *for all that* you may say in your defence (in spite of all you may say, etc. = though you may say many things in your defence).

(g) By the preposition "notwithstanding" followed by a Noun-clause :—

He is still asleep, notwithstanding that (=although) he has already slept for ten hours.

(h) By the conjunction "if" followed by a verb in the *Indicative* mood :—

If the English paid ship-money (=although it is true that they paid ship-money), they did it under protest.

(i) By the adverb "indeed" followed by the conjunction "but" :—

He recovered *indeed*, *but* his health has never been so good since. (Although he recovered, yet his health, etc.)

(j) By the phrases "nevertheless" or "none the less" :—

I do not blame myself for this result, but I am *none the less* disappointed. (Though I do not blame, etc., I am *none the less* disappointed.)

Rewrite the following sentences in the manner indicated below:—

1. He was poor indeed, but he was always honest. *Change to (a), (b), and (c).*

2. Though he never failed in anything, he was always modest and retiring. *Change to (d) and (g).*

3. Though it is true we have lost all our money, it has not been through our own fault. *Change to (h) and (i).*

4. Though his lineage may be high, his tastes are low and vulgar. *Change to (c), (d), and (j).*

5. Notwithstanding that it rained all yesterday, the air is still hot and disagreeable. *Change to (a), (i), and (j).*

6. The weather, though cool, is not healthy for this time of the year. *Change to (b) and (i).*

7. He was a strict man, but he was just *all the same*. *Change to (a), (g), and (i).*

8. Supposing I grant that he was in his right mind, that was no excuse for his conduct. *Change to (e) and (i).*

9. Although he was deserted by his friends, he was pardoned by his enemies. *Change to (g) and (h).*

10. However guilty he is, he is still an object of compassion. *Change to (a), (b), and (g).*

(4) *Interchange of Degrees of Comparison.*

(a) { *Posit.* He is *as* dull *as* an ass.
Comp. An ass is *not* duller than he is.

(b) { *Comp.* The air of hills is cooler than that of lowlands.
Posit. The air of lowlands is not so cool as that of hills.
Superl. Bombay is the best seaport in India.

(c) { *Comp.* Bombay is better than any other seaport in India.
Posit. No other seaport in India is so good as Bombay.
Superl. Clive was one of the greatest of Indian viceroys.

(d) { *Comp.* Clive was greater than most other Indian viceroys.
Posit. Very few Indian viceroys were so great as Clive.
Posit. Some grains are at least as nutritious as rice.

(e) { *Comp.* Rice is not more nutritious than some other grains are.
Posit. Some grains are not less nutritious than rice.
Superl. Rice is not the most nutritious of all grains.

Transform the following sentences in all possible ways according to the above models :—

1. The younger brother is cleverer than the elder.
2. A sharp ride on a spirited horse is the best kind of exercise.
3. Gold is one of the heaviest of metals.
4. Bad health is a more terrible enemy than poverty.
5. This man has more debts than cash.
6. Some countries are at least as hot as India.
7. Very few countries are as hot as India.
8. Platinum is as heavy as gold.
9. Thou art much older in mind than in age.
10. It is easier to imagine this scene than to describe it.
11. A live ass is stronger than a dead lion.
12. A zebra is at least as swift-footed as an antelope.
13. He repented of his fault more seriously than he seemed to do.
14. He treats the poor with the same degree of justice as the rich.
15. He sprung upon his enemy as fiercely and as fast as a tiger could do.
16. I would as soon die as injure a friend.
17. He is in no respect superior to you.
18. You know his character quite as well as I do.
19. He knows no more than a child how to keep his temper.
20. A voyage at sea is one of the healthiest things in the world.

(5) *Interchange of Active and Passive Voices.*

(a) { *Act.* Your behaviour has greatly astonished me.
Pass. I have been much astonished at your behaviour.

(b) { *Pass.* The judge suspected that the witness had been bribed.
Act. The judge suspected that some one had bribed the witness.

)(c) $\begin{cases} \text{Act.} & \text{It is now time to call over the names.} \\ \text{Pass.} & \text{It is now time for the names to be called over.} \end{cases}$
 (d) $\begin{cases} \text{Act.} & \text{Many persons went to see the launching of the ship.} \\ \text{Pass.} & \text{Many persons went to see the ship launched.} \end{cases}$

I. Transform the verbs in the following sentences from Active to Passive :—

1. The wise will not rely on medicine for keeping their health.
2. I felt the wasp stinging me on the arm.
3. The workmen feared that their master would not forgive them the fine.
4. It is now necessary to consult the doctor.
5. I dislike the noise of drum-beating.
6. That book has interested me greatly.
7. Your want of improvement has much disappointed me.
8. I found the boys laughing at me.
9. Hew down the bridge, Sir Consul, with all the speed ye may.
10. Many went to see the hanging of the murderer.
11. Wild flowers have grown all over the field.
12. The cries of distress greatly alarmed them.
13. Tell him to leave the room at once.
14. The house is rapidly building.
15. They said that he had left his home for ever.
16. Your admonitions have wearied me.

II. Transform the verbs in the following sentences from Passive to Active :—

1. This is too good to be expected.
2. What cannot be cured, must be endured.
3. In India the jackal's howl is often heard at night.
4. The road to hell is paved with good intentions.
5. Nothing is difficult to a man who is fired by ambition.
6. This is a suitable time for the new book to be introduced.
7. Let great care be taken, boy, to have everything ready.
8. I have been much distressed at your failure.
9. No time will be lost, my son, in having the results announced.
10. His fine voice will never be heard again in this hall.
11. Every one was charmed with his fine singing.
12. I am sorry to find that you were not promoted this year.
13. The idle candidates were all plucked.
14. He begged the teacher that he might be forgiven.

(6) Interchange of Exclamatory and Assertive Sentences.

(a) $\begin{cases} \text{Exclam.} & O \text{ what a fall was there my countrymen!} \\ & \text{Shakspeare.} \end{cases}$
 $\begin{cases} \text{Assert.} & \text{That was a terrible fall, my countrymen.} \end{cases}$

(b) $\begin{cases} \text{Exclam.} & O \text{ that the desert were my dwelling place!} \\ & \text{Byron.} \end{cases}$
 $\begin{cases} \text{Assert.} & I \text{ wish that the desert were my dwelling-place.} \end{cases}$

(c) { *Exclam.* How lovely were thy tents, O Israel! — *Heber.*
 { *Assert.* Thy tents, O Israel, were very lovely.
 (d) { *Exclam.* If I could only gain the first prize!
 { *Assert.* I earnestly desire to gain the first prize.

I. Transform the following sentences from Exclamatory to Assertive:—

1. If only I could see him to reproach him for his ingratitude!
2. If you deny me my rights, fie upon your law!
3. Woe is me, that I am compelled to have my habitation among the tents of Keber!
4. Would that I had not wasted my time, when I was young!
5. O what misery awaits a wasted youth!
6. O for the might that laid the traitor low!
7. How sad was the sight of the deserted city!
8. What a very lame excuse!
9. A fireman, and afraid of sparks!
10. How are the mighty fallen!
11. Too late! too late! ye cannot enter now!
12. Woe to him that giveth his neighbour drink, that putteth the bottle unto him, and maketh him drunken also!
13. A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!
14. O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!
15. How unsearchable are His judgments, and His ways past finding out!
16. Foolish fellow! to think that he should have so neglected his duty!
17. Well done!
18. It must needs be that offences come; but woe to that man by whom they come!
19. Death before dishonour!

II. Transform the following sentences from Assertive to Exclamatory:—

1. I wish I had never left my home.
2. We had a very merry time of it last night.
3. A vast number of pilgrims go to the Hardwar fair.
4. All the uses of this world have become weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable.
5. I wish I had the wings of a dove, that I might flee away and be at rest.
6. The mighty have fallen low.
7. The mind of man is one of the greatest marvels in nature.
8. A little knowledge is indeed a dangerous thing.
9. The beauties of nature are infinitely various.
10. A little spark may kindle a great fire.
11. I should very much like to see my native land again.
12. It was an evil day when I first met that man.

13. I cry shame upon your laws, if you refuse me justice.
14. That man is utterly foolish and improvident.

(7) *Interchange of Interrogative and Assertive Sentences.*

A question is sometimes put, not for the sake of getting information, but to suggest the answer that the speaker or writer desires to be given to it.

In such interrogatives, when the question is affirmative (see example 1), a negative answer is implied; and when the question is negative (see example 2), an affirmative answer is implied (see § 406, *Note*) :—

- (a) { *Inter.* Can the Ethiopian change his skin ?
Assert. The Ethiopian cannot change his skin.
- (b) { *Inter.* Who would not flee from a state of bondage ?
Assert. Every one would flee from a state of bondage.

I. *Transform the following sentences from Interrogative to Assertive :—*

1. Hath not a Jew eyes ? Hath not a Jew hands, organs, dimensions, senses, affections, passions ? Fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same diseases, healed by the same means, warmed and cooled by the same summer and winter, as a Christian is ? If you prick us, do we not bleed ? If you tickle us, do we not laugh ? If you poison us, do we not die ? And if you wrong us, shall we not take revenge ?—*Shakspeare*.

2. Who is here so base that would be a bondman ? Who is here so rude that will not love his country ?—*Shakspeare*.

3. O death, where is thy sting ? O grave, where is thy victory ?—*New Testament*.

II. *Transform the following sentences from Assertive to Interrogative :—*

1. You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear.
2. No one can bear an unprovoked insult.
3. To a lovely lady bright, I can wish nothing better than a faithful protector.
4. Fair words and promises are of no avail in the time of danger.
5. O Solitude, I do not perceive the charms that sages have seen in thy face.
6. No one ever saw a brighter daybreak than this.
7. It will profit a man nothing, if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul.
8. This is a strange sort of freedom, that is enforced with whips and fetters.
9. I do not see any reason why I should make another man's quarrel my own.
10. The beauties of nature are beyond description.

(8) *Interchange of Negative and Affirmative Sentences.*

(a) { Negat. None but the brave deserves the fair.
 Affirm. The brave alone deserve the fair.

(b) { Negat. His services cannot be forgotten.
 Affirm. His services have been too great to be forgotten.

(c) { Negat. A wise man will not overstep the bounds of
 duty.
 Affirm. A wise man will abstain from overstepping the
 bounds of duty.

(d) { Negat. No sooner did he see the tiger than he fled.
 Affirm. As soon as he saw the tiger he fled.

I. Rewrite each of the following sentences without a Negative :—

1. You are not taller than he is.
2. No one but a coward would flee from his duty.
3. As long as the fair continued, not a man lost his temper.
4. We had not gone far, when the horse began to show signs of fatigue.
5. Learned men are not always judicious.
6. This was too great an honour not to excite the envy of his rivals.
7. He was not blind to the faults of his own children.
8. A tent does not take long to be moved to another place.
9. Great men are of no one nation, nor of one particular class.
10. He cannot but give me the thanks that I deserved.
11. No one will deny that your son has done his best.
12. His office is no sinecure.
13. He will not grudge you the wages you have earned.
14. His deserts cannot be overlooked.
15. Nowhere does France come so near to England as at the Straits of Dover.
16. Never again will I revisit the shores of France.
17. He left no plan untried.
18. The romances of Sir Walter Scott are not likely to be ever forgotten.
19. His temper did not improve with age.

II. Transform the following sentences from Affirmative to Negative:—

1. It always pours when it rains.
2. He had a good reason for saying what he did.
3. As soon as the master entered the room, every one was silent.
4. There is always some lightning when it thunders.
5. We must have more money if we are to finish this work.
6. Your son is a boy of marked intelligence.
7. Such a disaster as this is beyond all precedent.
8. At this season of the year we always expect fine weather.
9. We all expect him to succeed in the long run.
10. This book was meant for men of quick understanding.

11. The demolition of the bridge is the only thing that can save the town.
12. Whenever I see that ship I am astonished at its bulk.
13. We expected something back in return for all the sacrifices we had made.
14. You are quite as foolish as he is.

(9) *The Substitution of one Part of Speech for Another.*

A sentence may be transformed in such a way that one of its leading words is changed from one Part of Speech to another.

Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs are thus liable to be interchanged :—

Verb. Lead and tin differ very greatly in weight.

Noun. Between lead and tin there is much *difference* in weight.

Adject. The weight of lead is very *different* from that of tin.

Adverb. Lead and tin are very *differently* constituted in point of weight.

I. Rewrite the following sentences, substituting the *Verb* form for the words *Italicised* :—

1. He promised his *assistance* to the project.
2. The *condemnation* of Socrates was a crime on the part of the Athenians.
3. I have an *engagement* to-day at four o'clock.
4. He talked to us very *amusingly*.
5. St. Paul was by *birth* a citizen of Rome.
6. *Reliance* on such a traitor as that would be foolish.
7. I am glad that my intention to become a soldier has received your *assent*.
8. The play gave us much *pleasure*.
9. If you desire *admission* to my service you must put your *signature* to this bond.
10. You have not acted according to *instructions*.
11. He *successfully* strove to win the first *prize*.
12. Whatever he gave, he gave *ungrudgingly*.
13. He did it *unknowingly*.
14. The plan is *apparently* a good one.
15. He was *presumptuous* enough to expect the first place.
16. It is against my *inclination* to do anything dishonest.
17. I acted thus in the *belief* that I was doing right.
18. He *forcibly* made his way through the crowd.
19. The rain will give *fresh* *fertility* to the soil.

II. Rewrite the following sentences, substituting the *Noun* form for the words *Italicised* :—

1. Hoping that you may still amend your conduct, I will *allow* you 20 *repeated* *months*, as before.

2. What does he *mean* by such impertinence?
3. He was so *impertinent* as to *defy* his master.
4. A spider is wonderfully *sagacious*.
5. Among barbarous tribes, bodily strength is *necessarily* required of the chief or king.
6. I left my house at six o'clock because he *desired* it.
7. A wise man is the best *qualified* to *exercise* power.
8. I *believe* that the accused is entirely *innocent*.
9. He did not reflect whether it was *possible* or not to outwit his enemies.
10. His mind was so *active* that he *succeeded* in everything.
11. I am sorry that he behaved so *rudely* to you.
12. He was *sensible* enough to mind his own business.
13. Her dress is so *simple* that it adds to her beauty.
14. They *easily* gained the day.
15. The journey was not very *expensive*.
16. Whatever he may have *intended*, he has *disappointed* us.
17. He is at times inclined to act *dishonestly*.
18. The way to *live* long is to *keep* regular habits.

III. Rewrite the following sentences, substituting the Adjective form for the words italicised:—

1. He was *absolutely* ruined by that unlucky business.
2. He has more *influence* with the minister than with the king.
3. Theft in former times was a crime *to be punished* with death.
4. He is an *unusually* good speaker.
5. He *presumes* to think that his opinion has more *weight* than mine.
6. There is much *plausibility* in his way of talking, but it is full of *deception*.
7. He is a man of remarkable *industry*.
8. A man inclined to *vice* will never *prosper*.
9. He was so given to *suspicion*, that he looked upon every man as his secret *enemy*.
10. To eat and drink *temperately* is the way to preserve health.
11. He had not the *politeness* to stand aside.
12. Every one was pleased with his *fearlessness* and *independence*.
13. Whatever he said, he said *deliberately*.

IV. Rewrite the following sentences, substituting the Adverb form for the words italicised:—

1. It was not his *intention* to do you that injury.
2. It is *probable* that rain will fall to-morrow.
3. He answered his accusers with as much *ingenuity* as *earnestness*.
4. He had a very *narrow* escape of being caught.
5. I sign this bond with great *reluctance*.
6. He is *careless* in everything that he does.
7. His eloquence that morning was *unusual*.
8. It was a *fortunate* thing that no lives were lost in that shipwreck.
9. It is quite *evident* that you have been misinformed.
10. You could do that with *ease*, if you tried.
11. There is no *meaning* in what he says.

12. The doctor made a very *careful* and *patient* study of the invalid's case.
13. He led a *temperate* and *regular* life.
14. He pretends that he drinks brandy as a *medicine*.
15. His behaviour was very *insolent*, and they say that he behaved so on *purpose*.
16. He was very *generous* in his treatment of the prisoners.
17. He was ordered to leave the room in an *instant*.

(10) *Conversion of Simple Sentences to Compound Ones.*

Simple Sentences can be converted into Compound ones, by expanding words or phrases into Co-ordinate clauses.

The following examples will serve to indicate the process :—

(a) *Cumulative Conjunctions.*

Simple. Besides making a promise, he kept it.

Compound. He not only made a promise, but he also kept it.

(b) *Alternative Conjunctions.*

Simple. He must confess his fault to *escape being fined*.

Compound. He must confess his fault, or he will be fined.

(c) *Adversative Conjunctions.*

Simple. Notwithstanding his sorrow, he is hopeful.

Compound. He is sorrowful, but yet hopeful.

(d) *Illative Conjunctions.*

Simple. Owing to bad health, he could not work.

Compound. He was in bad health, and so he could not work.

I. *Expand each Simple Sentence into a Compound one, using some Cumulative Conjunction for combining the clauses :—*

1. Seeing a bear coming, he fled.
2. Besides myself, every one else declares him to be guilty.
3. Before retiring, he must first serve twenty-five years.
4. After making a great effort, he at last gained his end.
5. In addition to advising them, he helped them liberally.
6. The agreement having been signed, all were satisfied.
7. Drawing his sword, he rushed at the enemy.
8. The judge believes with me in his innocence.
9. The sun having risen, the fog dispersed.

II. *Expand each Simple Sentence into a Compound one, using some Alternative Conjunction for combining the clauses :—*

1. He will be dismissed in the event of his doing such a thing again.
2. You must take rest, on pain of losing your health.
3. He fled away, to escape being killed.
4. He escaped punishment by confessing his fault.

5. Approach a step nearer at peril of your life.
6. You must walk two hours a day to preserve your health.

III. Expand each Simple Sentence into a Compound one, using some Adversative Conjunction for combining the clauses:—

1. For all his riches, he is not contented.
2. Notwithstanding all his efforts, he failed to gain his end.
3. In spite of the opposition of all men, he never swerved.
4. In spite of our search, we could not find the book.
5. He had every qualification for success, except quickness of understanding and decision of character.
6. He hated every one but himself.
7. He persevered, in spite of all men being against him.
8. He stuck to his point against every one.
9. Notwithstanding his recent failure, he is still hopeful.

IV. Expand each Simple Sentence into a Compound one, using some Illative Conjunction for combining the clauses:—

1. He was honoured in virtue of his wealth.
2. He worked night and day out of ambition to excel.
3. He was taken ill through grief at the loss of his son.
4. By means of his great wealth, he was able to build himself a fine house.
5. He spoke the truth from fear of the disgrace of falsehood.
6. The letter, having been addressed to the wrong house, never reached me.
7. To our great disappointment, we failed to carry out our purpose.
8. To add to his difficulties, he lost his health.
9. The fog being very dense, we were forced to halt.
10. St. Paul continued preaching at Rome, no man forbidding him.
11. To make matters worse, the bank broke.
12. To our utter surprise, he had entirely deceived us.
13. The bank having broke, the creditors were ruined.
14. Having taken no trouble about his work, he was plucked.
15. Owing to ill health, he was unable to work.
16. He and I having come to terms, the business will now prosper.
17. The real culprit having confessed, the accused was acquitted.

(11) Conversion of Compound Sentences to Simple.

(a) By substituting a Participle for a Finite verb.

Compound. The sun rose and the fog dispersed.

Simple. The sun having risen, the fog dispersed.

(b) By substituting a Preposition, etc., for a clause.

Compound. He not only made a promise, but kept it.

Simple. Besides making a promise, he kept it.

(c) By substituting a Gerund. Infinitive for a clause.

Compound. He must confess his fault or he will be fined.

Simple. He must confess his fault to escape being fined.

Reduce each sentence from Compound to Simple.

1. An ass accidentally found a lion's skin, and put it on to frighten the other beasts.
2. He was very tired with walking, and so he sat down to take a little rest.
3. Turn to the left and you will find the house of your friend.
4. Not only the tank, but even a part of the river was frozen over with ice.
5. The judge, as well as the jury, believed the prisoner to be guilty.
6. You must work hard the whole term, and then you will get promotion.
7. He was the son of poor parents, and therefore he had to encounter many trials and difficulties at the outset of his career.
8. He was a poor man, and yet he was of an independent spirit at all times.
9. I advised him to make the best use of his time, but he paid no heed.
10. He was much frightened, but not much hurt.
11. Every effort was made to check the spread of cholera ; yet a large number of persons died.
12. He was well-fitted for that post by character and attainments ; only he was rather too young and inexperienced.
13. He did his best to be punctual, but still he was occasionally behind time.
14. He is well versed in books, but wanting in common sense.
15. You must work hard, or you will not get promotion.
16. Give us some clear proofs of your assertion, otherwise no one will believe you.
17. A certain fowler fixed his net on the ground, and scattered a great many grains of rice about it.
18. The pigeons flew down to pick up the rice grains ; for they were all hungry.
19. The old man frequently begged his sons to live together in peace, but he was disregarded.
20. They bound themselves to live together in brotherly love, and then no one could harm them.
21. An English sailor had been shut up for several years, but he was set free at the peace.
22. Not only was the sailor set free, but he was provided with some money for his journey home.
23. There are many serious defects in his character ; only he is honest.
24. His act was not really noble ; for it was done from a low motive.
25. He was out of health, and therefore he could not go to school.
26. The bulls quarrelled among themselves, and so the lion soon devoured them.
27. The wheel was lifted out, and the cart was soon again moving along the road.
28. The sun shone out, and the bats all flew away into their hiding places.

29. He had no money, and so he was obliged to give one kind of goods in exchange for another.

30. A quarrel arose amongst them, and each man went away to his own house.

31. Every one should make the best use of his younger days, or he will repent it in his old age.

32. Not only energy, but patience is necessary to success in life.

33. He was an impatient, impulsive man, and therefore he failed in all his undertakings.

34. I have suffered heavy losses since our last meeting, and so I cannot now pay for a seat in the coach.

35. The vessel sank, and her captain perished.

36. The parrot frequently heard the words of command used by the officers, and in this way it became expert in repeating them.

37. The slave was thrown several times into the water, after which they pulled him up into the ship by the hair.

38. Their real character was now exposed to view, and every one laughed at them.

39. His mother tried to correct him, but he continued none the less to be lazy.

40. He prayed the officers to allow him to retire for one moment, and his request was freely granted.

41. His health failed during the examination, and every one was very sorry.

42. The sting by the scorpion gave him a great deal of pain, but he showed no signs of suffering.

43. The mice found their numbers getting thinner every day ; so they held a meeting to consider some means of escape.

44. The speaker resumed his seat, and a murmur of applause rose from the assembly.

45. The rose is called the queen of flowers ; for it stands first in brightness of colour.

46. Sweetness of scent as well as brightness of colour makes the rose the queen of flowers.

47. The rose-tree is a most delightful bush ; only it is covered with thorns.

(12) *Conversion of Simple Sentences to Complex.*

Simple sentences can be converted to complex ones, by expanding words or phrases into subordinate clauses.

The following examples will serve to indicate the process :—

(a) *Noun-Clause.*

Simple. I am certain of giving you satisfaction.

Complex. I am certain that I shall give you satisfaction.

(b) *Adjective-Clause.*

Simple. He paid off his father's debts.

Complex. He paid off the debts which his father had contracted.

(c) *Adverb-Clause.*

Simple.	{ <i>On reaching manhood</i> you will have to work for your living.
Complex.	{ <i>As soon as you have reached manhood</i> , you will have to work for your living.

I. *Expand each Simple Sentence into a Complex one containing a Noun-clause or clauses:—*

1. I was glad to hear of your having succeeded so well.
2. He is generally believed to have died of poison.
3. No one can tell the time of his coming.
4. One man's meat is another man's poison.
5. We have read of savages being able to produce fire by the friction of two pieces of wood.
6. He shouted to his neighbours to come to his help.
7. We can place no confidence in any of his words.
8. The fact of his having gone away without leaving us his address is a clear proof of the dishonesty of his intentions.
9. The usefulness of even the simplest weapons to men in the savage state will easily be understood.
10. His death at so young an age is much to be regretted.
11. We must hope for better times.
12. Tell me the time and place of your birth.
13. The verdict of the judge was in favour of the accused.
14. All his statements should be accepted.
15. They questioned the propriety of doing that.
16. The greatness of his labour could be seen from the result.
17. My departure will depend upon my getting leave.
18. He desired to know the nature of his offence.
19. The burial-place of Moses was never known to the Jews.
20. They explained to him the duty of confessing his fault.
21. He was reported to have lost most of his money.
22. We know the name of the writer of that letter.

II. *Expand each Simple Sentence into a Complex one containing an Adjective-clause:—*

1. Joseph remained a long time in prison, utterly forgotten.
2. Our present house suits us exactly.
3. This rule, the source of all our troubles, is disliked by everyone.
4. After a storm the weather is generally calm.
5. That was a fault not to be forgiven.
6. The diamond field is not far from here.
7. He and his friend entered into a partnership binding themselves to incur equal risks.
8. Their explanation cannot be true.
9. The king took refuge in the fortress, being determined to make a last attempt in that place to save his kingdom.
10. He was a man of irreproachable conduct.
11. He was not a man to tell a lie.

12. The snow-line in India is about 20,000 feet high.
13. The troubles besetting him on all sides did not daunt him.
14. They soon forgot their past labours.
15. This spot, the first landing-place of the Pilgrim Fathers, is held to be sacred ground.
16. His offence was unpardonable.
17. My leave-application has been despatched.
18. Is this the way to learn your lessons?
19. A certain cholera-cure has not yet been found.
20. Egypt was the first country to become civilised.
21. Death from snake-bite is of daily occurrence.
22. The benefits of his early training were thrown away.
23. Disease, the sure accompaniment of famine, soon broke out with virulence.
24. That was the act of a coward.
25. Milton was the greatest poet in King Charles' reign.
26. These hills have never yet been trodden by the foot of man.

III. *Expand each Simple Sentence into a Complex one containing an Adverb-clause or clauses:—*

Cause.

1. In the absence of any other helper, we must accept his aid.
2. The two chief points having been gained, success is now certain.
3. They were much surprised to hear him confess his fault.
4. Owing to repeated failures, he made no further attempt.
5. He resigned his post on the ground of unfair treatment.
6. Being all well armed, they were quite ready to fight.
7. He was ashamed at being unable to give an answer.

Effect.

1. The problem was too difficult to be solved.
2. He worked very well, to the astonishment of every one.
3. The hare could not be caught on account of its swiftness of foot.
4. He fell under suspicion by becoming suddenly rich.
5. By reason of his cleverness he could not be defeated in argument.
6. He was too fond of amusement to become a prosperous man.

Purpose.

1. He worked hard for the purpose of gaining a prize.
2. He labours day and night with a view to becoming rich.
3. Every precaution was taken against the failure of the plan.
4. They proceeded very cautiously for fear of being caught.
5. He started by night to escape being seen by any one.
6. He purposes to become rich by sticking steadily to his work.

Condition.

1. Without leave from the master, we should not go out.
2. He would be very thankful to be relieved of all this trouble.
3. Going straight ahead for a mile, and then turning to the right, you will find the house.
4. I should be very glad to be able to help him in any way.

5. With or without his leave, I shall leave the room.
6. In the event of his refusal to sign the bond, what will happen?
7. He would have been caught but for his flight across the border.
8. On condition of your signing this receipt, I will pay you the money.
9. In the absence of the master, the whole house would have been burned to the ground.

Concession or Contrast.

1. Notwithstanding the heat of the sun we must go out.
2. In spite of all his riches, he is never contented.
3. In defiance of the order to finish the work, he went away leaving half of it undone.
4. For all his experience he is still incompetent.

Comparison or Proportion.

1. The depth of the sea equals the height of the mountains.
2. The air becomes cooler in proportion to the height of the ground.
3. With every man who came in, another went out.
4. His cleverness is not inferior to that of any other boy in the class.
5. Of all the boys in the class James is the most industrious.
6. Men's wants become greater in proportion to the increase in their possessions.
7. He is strong for a child of eight.

Extent, Manner, Price.

1. Keep perfectly silent at peril of your lives.
2. He acted precisely according to instructions.
3. Be it done unto thee according to thy belief.
4. My treatment of you shall be similar to your treatment of me.
5. The harvest will depend upon the sowing.
6. Within my knowledge nothing like this has ever happened before.
7. He always did his work to the best of his power.
8. Nothing in my opinion will prosper under such a man.

Time when.

1. He returned to duty immediately on the expiry of his leave.
2. He was very sorry on finding out his mistake.
3. With every cough he felt a good deal of pain.
4. With the first appearance of the sun, the birds begin to sing.
5. The city having been taken, the inhabitants fled.
6. Having finished their dinner, they started off again.
7. The case being now hopeless, ye must change our plans.

Time during.

1. With the continuance of life, there is still hope.
2. In the performance of duty, no one should feel afraid.
3. In the absence of the cat the mice play.

Time before.

1. Previously to his appointment to the post, everything was badly managed.
2. Before the commencement of his illness, he was always at work.
3. She made everything ready in expectation of his arrival.

Time after.

1. Since the receipt of this news, every one has been happy.
2. After the issue of that order everything went straight.
3. From the time of its falling under English rule, India has always enjoyed peace.
4. From the close of Aurangzebe's reign, the Mogul Empire began to fall into decay.
5. He was first taken ill three weeks since.

Time up to.

1. Till the arrival of the Saxons English was not spoken in Britain.
2. By constant work he was utterly exhausted.
3. Before the signing of the receipt, the money will not be paid.

(13) Conversion of Complex Sentences to Simple.**I. Noun-clause.**

(a) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by the Conjunction "that":—

Complex. It is sad that he died so young.

Simple. His death at so young an age is sad.

(b) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by a Relative adverb:—

Complex. Tell me when and where you were born.

Simple. Tell me the time and place of your birth.

(c) By substituting a noun for the Noun-clause introduced by a Relative pronoun:—

Complex. We need not disbelieve what he said.

Simple. We need not disbelieve his word.

1. It is not known precisely when Buddha, the Indian reformer, was born.
2. There is scarcely any doubt that Buddha lived some 500 years before Christ.
3. What he spoke on that occasion was unworthy a man of his age and experience.
4. How extensive the Mahomedan conquests in India were, can be best seen from the spelling of geographical names in different parts of that country.
5. That the rose is the sweetest and most beautiful of flowers is admitted by almost every one.

6. They are now ready to confess that the charge against my friend was groundless.

7. Even his friends admitted that what his enemies complained of was just and reasonable.

8. What we have learnt already is a step towards learning what we do not at present know.

9. How or where that ignorant ploughman learnt to read so well is understood by no one except himself.

10. No one in this company has any doubt that he got secret help from some teacher.

11. We could not make out what those lines of poetry meant.

12. I am anxious to know where your father lives and what his occupation is.

13. They admit that Milton was a great poet, but deny that he was a good man.

14. What seemed most strange in the battle of Plassey was that the Nawab's immense army should have been defeated by so small a force, and that the victory on the English side should have been so decisive.

15. You can never know what he is really aiming at or what he means by his words.

16. I should like to be informed what character in English history you most admire.

17. You are requested to state on oath when and where you were born and what are the names of your parents.

18. I will now be bold enough to confess what my heart desires and how I shall obtain it.

19. From what you have read in this book, you have become acquainted with the state in which the Saxons were living, when the Normans arrived under William the Conqueror.

20. You will easily understand from what you have been told how much this book has displeased me by its bad teaching.

21. Whether the plan suggested will succeed or fail depends on how it will be received by those who are most interested in its progress.

22. Cromwell was shrewd enough to perceive where the strength of the king's party lay, and at what point it could be most easily attacked, and how it could be best resisted.

23. We know what we are, but we do not know what we shall be.

24. Whether resistance to rulers is proper or improper, and what the limits and aims of such resistance should be, depends upon whether the said rulers have exercised their authority lawfully or not.

II. *The Adjective clause.*

(a) By using some adjective or participle:—

Complex. Such pupils as work hard may win a prize.

Simple. Hard-working pupils may win a prize.

(b) By using a noun or pronoun in the Possessive case:—

Complex. They soon forgot the labours they had endured.

Simple. They soon forgot *their* past labours.

(c) By using a noun in apposition :—

Complex. This rule, from which all our troubles have come, is much disliked.

Simple. This rule, the source of all our troubles, is much disliked.

(d) By using a Preposition with its object :—

Complex. The benefits that he derived from his early training were soon lost.

Simple. The benefits of his early training were soon lost.

(e) By using a Gerundial Infinitive :—

Complex. I have no money that I can spare.

Simple. I have no money to spare.

(f) By using a Compound noun :—

Complex. That is the place where my father was buried.

Simple. That was my father's burial-place.

1. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
2. A stone that is rolling gathers no moss.
3. The explanation he gave was not to the point.
4. The opinion you have formed of me is unjust.
5. He made those foolish remarks at a time when he was not on his guard.
6. The relation in which you stand to me at present may be reversed at some future time.
7. The first year in which the school was opened was 1884.
8. His kindness to me has been such as I cannot express, and such as I never did anything to deserve.
9. Let us take a walk into the grove that adjoins my father's house.
10. Most of the poems that Kálidás wrote have been preserved.
11. The army that Hannibal led against Rome was the most formidable that the Romans had up to that time encountered.
12. He was not fully aware of the extent of the dangers by which he was surrounded.
13. The man disguised himself by putting on such a coat as is worn by foreigners, and by painting his face and dyeing his hair.
14. Mary Queen of Scots was the most unfortunate of all the sovereigns of the century in which she lived.
15. My friend managed to keep his seat in spite of the tricks that his horse played him.
16. The English honour the name of Wellington in all those parts of the world that are included in the British empire.
17. The century that followed the death of the Emperor Aurangzebe was one of the most disturbed periods of Indian history.
18. The whole plan was upset by the course which affairs took after the 24th of May.
19. Men should strive to imitate the high examples of virtue which their forefathers displayed in previous ages.

20. We decided on building a cottage in the vale that is watered by a streamlet which flows from a perennial fountain.
21. The people of Israel mourned in the land to which they had been taken captive.
22. At the time when Julius Cæsar was murdered ghosts, according to the legend which was then current, were seen to walk in the streets of Rome.
23. The temple of Solomon was built on the site which David had taken from the Jebusites who were its former masters.
24. There was no rope whereby the boat might be tied to the river's bank.
25. The evil that men do lives after them.
26. This is a matter in which no proof is necessary and the signature of witnesses is not required.
27. The intelligence that the lower animals display in the search for food, and in the preservation of their young, is something very different from blind instinct.
28. You are not the kind of man who would tell an untruth for the sake of an advantage that would be merely temporary.
29. The house that stands in front of us, about half a mile distant, was built of stones which were dug out of its own site.
30. This is a rule that must not be violated by any one and admits of no variation.
31. King Charles, who was the second of the Stuart line, paid no regard to the promises he had made to his subjects.
32. This portrait of our friend who died lately will keep us always in remembrance of what he said and did during his long and useful life.
33. A series of lectures will be given this term on a subject in which we are all much interested, and in a style that we shall easily comprehend.
34. The thieves have fled away into a jungle that is covered with a dense scrub and is very favourable to concealment from the eyes of those who are pursuing them.
35. In his old age, after a laborious life most of which he had spent in the metropolis, he retired to the quiet village where he was born, and where he intended to spend his remaining years.
36. In India, in times when the Mogul Empire was declining, the governors who were placed in charge of the outlying provinces became virtually independent, and exercised such powers as belonged by right to the Emperor who reigned at Delhi.
37. I do not clearly understand the force of the excuses that you have made and of the objections that you have urged.
38. Between this spot and our own house we have to finish a journey that will cover a distance of fifty miles, and last three days.
39. The story that was told us by the messenger, and that seemed almost incredible, turned out to be true after all.
40. This rule, from which we get so much trouble and suffer so much loss, would be cancelled by any master who was wise enough to know what our wants and difficulties really are.
41. This field, in which so much coal is dug, appears to be very rich in the mineral named.

42. Wolsey founded a seat of learning at Ipswich, the town where he was born.

43. The boys, whose annual examination had just been finished, went home for the holidays on the very day on which the school closed.

44. A woman cannot easily find a place to which she can flee or retire from a husband who persecutes her.

45. The old city that stood on the banks of the Tigris had seven gates by which men might come in, and seven others by which they could go out.

46. The messenger whom we expected fled away without giving the explanation that he was required to give.

47. Cromwell, who was entitled the Protector, expelled from the House of Commons all who were in any way opposed to his plans.

48. A severe penalty was inflicted on every man who possessed or was caught reading that dangerous book.

III. *Adverb-clause.*

(a) By using a preposition or prepositional phrase :—

Complex. The boy was pleased that he had won a prize.

Simple. The boy was pleased at having won a prize.

(b) By using a participle :—

Complex. As the main point has been gained, success is certain.

Simple. The main point having been gained, success is certain.

(c) By using a Gerundial Infinitive :—

Complex. They were surprised, when they heard him confess.

Simple. They were surprised to hear him confess.

1. He drew the plan of the building more skilfully than any one else could have done it.

2. Abide by your promise, as you value your good name.

3. They were much alarmed, when they saw that their position was hopeless.

4. He was quite aware what the consequences would be, if he acted so foolishly.

5. The king or queen cannot impose taxes, unless the Parliament consents or approves.

6. If a man puts on the appearance of honesty, he can sometimes pass for honest.

7. Though every one else became alarmed, he himself remained as cool as he usually is.

8. Though he is a man of years and experience, he is still apt to be imprudent and thoughtless when some sudden emergency arises.

9. Although his intentions are kind, he is sometimes a hard master.

10. The speaker declared he had changed his mind on that subject so that the audience were much surprised and distressed.

11. We never looked him in the face but we laughed.

12. Although he has made a few mistakes, let him have a prize, lest he should be discouraged.

13. As the sun has set, we had better start for home.
14. These men suspect that I am a swindler.
15. He did as he was told.
16. He left the house in great anger, as (or since) he had taken offence at some of the remarks made by the last speaker.
17. When the fire was put out and the inmates of the house rescued, the firemen removed the pumps, so that they might take a little rest.
18. As soon as the signal was given, every one raised a shout, and gave a hearty welcome to the royal visitor.
19. As the judge has already decided the case, further defence is useless.
20. His mother will be much consoled, when she sees that her son has escaped from so many dangers.
21. I should be indeed sorry, if I were the cause of your ruin or stood in the way of your advancement.
22. He spoke so rapidly that we could not clearly understand him.
23. What evils have befallen him that he should be so much pitied by every one?
24. There is no branch of knowledge so difficult that it cannot be conquered by perseverance.
25. The rope in your hand is so long, that it will touch the bottom of the well, if a stone is tied to the end of it.
26. He was not so courageous, that he was willing to ride that spirited horse.
27. The higher we go up, the cooler the air becomes.
28. The more, the merrier.
29. When the trick was found out, the master ordered the man to be expelled from the house at once.
30. A time there was ere England's griefs began,
When every rood of ground maintained its man.—*Goldsmith*.
31. No sooner was the first drop of rain seen to fall, than the peasant brought his oxen and plough, that he might break the first sod and cast the first seed into the earth.
32. The moment I saw how industriously and patiently he worked, I decided that I would secretly give him some pecuniary help that very day.
33. He made such an excellent speech in defence of his friend, that every one admired and respected him.
34. The judge delivered a verdict, as became his abilities and office.
35. The peasantry became poorer, as the landlord became richer.
36. The reasons of this unfortunate result are so complicated, that I am unable to explain them in few words.
37. The success of that dull boy in the last examination was so unexpected, that suspicions were aroused.
38. Dull, backward, and lazy as he was, yet he almost headed the list of passmen, so that every one was astonished.
39. The rocks that first meet the eye of the traveller, as he enters the Suez Canal, are a part of the break-water that was built for some two miles out into the sea, so that ships might enter the canal in safety.
40. Great delays are caused in the canal, when a ship is accidentally

disabled or grounded, since all other vessels are detained, until that ship has been removed and the way cleared for other ships to pass.

41. Before the canal was cut, vessels bound for India had to proceed by a long and tedious voyage, and to round the Cape of Good Hope, since without doing so they could not have entered the waters of the Indian Ocean.

42. If the canal were closed or obstructed, such a tedious voyage would be deemed a serious hardship.

43. But a calamity of this kind is not likely to occur, as treaties have been signed between the principal nations of Europe, which provide that even in time of war all vessels shall be permitted to pass unhindered.

44. He failed in the examination, because he was unable to answer more than a quarter of the questions.

45. The father was much displeased, when he perceived that his son was not inclined to profit by his advice.

46. As you are now well acquainted with the facts, you can judge for yourself as to whether I have been fairly treated or not.

47. As the weather was bad and threatened to become worse and worse, we stayed at home so that we might not be drenched with rain before we had finished our journey or found shelter in a house.

48. He is miserable now, because in his youth he was idle and neglected his best opportunities.

49. He would have come to a miserable end, had not a stranger unexpectedly appeared and relieved him of his most urgent wants.

50. Unless the examiner is lenient and gives him more marks than are usually allotted, there is no hope of his passing this examination.

51. If I had not been thoroughly acquainted with his designs, there is no doubt he would have brought me into serious trouble.

52. The traveller, although he was furnished with ample means, and had received clear instructions as to the course to be taken, was scarcely able to reach the end of his journey by the time appointed.

53. Though I had many difficulties to conquer, and expected to be degraded from the class, I succeeded at last in mastering the subject.

54. The subject was difficult (it must be admitted), but not so difficult that it could not be mastered in the long run, if only the student persevered and was determined to master it.

55. Dull as a student may be, and difficult as a subject may seem to be at first sight, he will find the study become easier or more difficult, according as he perseveres or neglects it.

56. He laboured day and night, that all evils might be removed, and the condition of the people improved.

57. They will do their utmost, so that he may never again have the power to injure them.

58. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.—*Proverbs of Solomon.*

59. The railway-carriage was overcrowded, so that all the passengers suffered much inconvenience.

60. I cannot even speak, but you find fault with me and accuse me of an untruth.

61. He and his neighbour never passed each other, that they did not look angry and make some rude remark.

62. We were all much distressed at his words, not because we feared he had spoken an untruth, but because we feared he had almost lost his senses.

63. The sailors refused to go on board, as they observed that the ship was overloaded, and would therefore be unable to stem the waves, should a storm at any time arise.

64. When you have at last gained the object of your desires, you will not find the object gained as good as you expected to find it, and you will be much disappointed.

65. He is working very hard to-night, so that he may be free next day, and be able to spend the holiday with his friends.

66. What fault has he committed, that he should be dismissed and be sent away in disgrace?

67. He was a brave man, it is true, but not so brave, that he would face a tiger, unless he was furnished with a gun and seated on an elephant.

68. Although I am so old that I am unable to work, yet I am so proud that I cannot beg.

(14) *Conversion of Compound Sentences to Complex.*

In a Compound sentence the second of two co-ordinate clauses is the one that completes the sense, and is therefore the more important of the two.

Hence it follows that in transforming a Compound sentence to a Complex one, the *second* clause must be made the *Principal*, and the *first* the *Dependent*.

(a) *Cumulative Conjunctions.*

Compound. Speak the truth, and you need have no fear.

Complex. If you speak the truth, you need have no fear.

(b) *Alternative Conjunctions.*

Compound. Leave this room, or I will compel you to do so.

Complex. Unless you leave this room, I will compel you to do so.

(c) *Adversative Conjunctions.*

Compound. He was a poor man, but he was always honest.

Complex. He was always honest, although he was poor.

(d) *Illative Conjunctions.*

Compound. He was very tired, and therefore he fell sound asleep.

Complex. He fell sound asleep, because he was very tired.

Transform the following sentences from Compound to Complex:—

(a) *Cumulative.*

1. Hand over the prisoner to me, and I will examine him.

2. Take care of the pence, and the pounds will take care of themselves.

3. Ask no questions, and you will hear no lies.
4. Only hold your tongue, and you can hold anything else.
5. I fall sound asleep, and immediately the fever leaves me.
6. The bank broke, and he became very poor.
7. He persevered in his efforts, and succeeded at last.
8. I am now poor and unfortunate, and my friends have left me in the lurch.
9. He stands up to speak, and every one is at once silent.
10. Seest thou a man wise in his own conceit ? there is more hope of a fool than of him.
11. Is any man sick ? let the elders pray for him.
12. I placed the book on the table, and it is still there.
13. Everyone else had left the room, and then he left it himself.
14. I go to this place and that, and the same thought pursues me everywhere.
15. He might speak at any time or place, and he was always listened to with respect.

(b) Alternative.

1. He confessed his fault, or he would have been punished.
2. Sign your name, or I shall not agree to this.
3. I have not ten rupees myself, or I would be glad to lend you the amount.
4. Go away at once, otherwise I will send for a policeman.
5. Speak, or I fire.
6. You must be careful of your money, or you will soon lose it.
7. Conquer thy desires, or they will conquer thee.
8. I will conquer this fellow, or perish in the attempt.
9. Hold your tongue, or you will repent it.

(c) Adversative.

1. He distrusts me, and yet I will trust him none the less.
2. He is sixty years old, and yet he still has good sight.
3. Murder has no tongue, but it will some day speak.
4. He is now old and infirm, but he is still industrious.
5. A rabbit is not so swift-footed as a hare, but it is a better burrower.
6. All men were against him ; nevertheless he persevered.
7. He was rich to any extent ; yet he was greedy for more.
8. Wise men love truth, whereas fools shun it.
9. Go wherever you like, only do not stay here.
10. England is not a good country for vines, but the wines of all countries find their way to its shores.
11. Every one before now knew that he was a fool, but no one till now knew that he was a coward.
12. I called thee to curse my enemies, but behold ! thou hast blessed them altogether.
13. His arguments may be sound, but his inferences are almost always one-sided.
14. They were defeated indeed, but not disgraced.
15. In the discharge of duty he was a strict, but just man.

(d) **Illative.**

1. I thoroughly dislike that man, and therefore I cannot admire him.
2. He has worked steadily all through the past year, and therefore he is certain to be promoted.
3. It is now late; so we had better go to bed.
4. He came suddenly upon me, and so I was caught.
5. My son's health was bad last year, and hence he was not promoted at the end of the term.
6. They were bent upon winning him over, either by flattery or by persuasion; but he was an honest man, and therefore they did not succeed.
7. I am almost certain to miss the mark; so it is of no use for me to shoot.
8. You desired me to start, and so I am ready to do so.
9. Food is raised by agriculture, which is therefore the foundation of all wealth.
10. My son has never done such a thing before: he shall therefore be pardoned.

Note.—In such sentences as the following it is an open question to which of the clauses we should give precedence:—

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Compound.} \\ \text{Complex.} \end{array} \right.$	He loves you most and me least. He loves you more than me. He loves me less than you.
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Compound.} \\ \text{Complex.} \end{array} \right.$	Either you or I must make the confession. If you do not make the confession, I must do so. If I do not make the confession, you must do so.

(15) *Conversion of Complex Sentences to Compound.*

In a Complex sentence the Principal or Containing clause is, as its name implies, of more importance than the Subordinate or Contained clause.

Hence it follows that in transforming a Complex sentence to Compound, the Principal clause must be placed last, and the Subordinate (which now becomes a Co-ordinate) clause must be placed first.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Complex.} \\ \text{Compound.} \end{array} \right.$	He is honest, though poor. He is poor, but honest.
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Complex.} \\ \text{Compound.} \end{array} \right.$	I have found the sheep that I had lost. I had lost a sheep, but I have found it again.
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Complex.} \\ \text{Compound.} \end{array} \right.$	He is more a fool than a knave. He is something of a knave, but still more a fool.

I. Change the following sentences from Complex to Compound, using some **Cumulative conjunctions**, or the **Relative pronoun** in a **Continuative sense**, for combining the component clauses :—

1. You may keep this book, when you have earned it as a prize.
2. He will pay off all his debts in time, if only his creditors will have patience.
3. The enemy fled as soon as our guns came in sight.
4. Every man howled with pain, as he took his turn of the lash.
5. When you have worked out this sum, you may go out to play.
6. Could I but see that wonderful object, I would believe in its existence.
7. If thou cuttest more or less than a just pound, nay, if the scale do but turn in the estimation of a hair, thou diest and all thy goods are confiscated.—*Shakspeare*.
8. As soon as the trumpet sounded, the battle commenced.
9. He left for home yesterday as soon as he received that letter.
10. We selected this boy as the best in the class, after we had examined all of them.
11. He is still lying down on the very bed where we last saw him.
12. He would prefer war to peace, if war would bring him more honour.
13. If the accused was guilty of that murder, he deserves to be hanged : if he was innocent, the witnesses have perjured themselves.
14. If he were commended for his work, it would encourage him to be equally industrious in future.
15. We have had no trouble of any kind, since we came here.
16. You may have everything in the house, if only you will leave me my mother's legacy.
17. You shall not leave this room, till you have made an apology.
18. I will make tea, when the water is boiling.

II. Change the following sentences from Complex to Compound, using some **Adversative conjunctions** for combining the component clauses :—

1. He could do this, if he tried.
2. If our king should be slain on the battlefield, we still have his son to lead us against our enemies.
3. Though you may not be able to conquer, I exhort you to fight bravely to the last.
4. Brave as he is, he has few men around him, and may be defeated.
5. Grievous words stir up anger, though a soft answer turneth away wrath.—*Old Testament*.
6. Though the waves dash ever so high, the ship will not be lost.
7. Though the Israelites were carried captive to many foreign lands, yet in all places they maintained the creed and customs of their race.
8. However fond I may be of my own country, I shall have to go abroad for the sake of earning a living.
9. Bad as his disposition is, he is our master, and we must endure it.

10. I would have gone to see you, if I had known your house.
11. The sea is as deep as the mountains are high.
12. Although he is a hard master, his intentions are good.
13. If his theory was sound, he certainly did not act up to it.

III. *Change the following sentences from Complex to Compound, using some Alternative conjunctions for combining the component clauses:—*

1. If you do not hold your peace, you will be fined.
2. Unless he speaks the truth in your behalf, you will not be acquitted.
3. If we had helped him in the time of need, he would now be ready to give help to us.
4. If I had known the extent of his demand, I would not have promised to pay him.
5. Unless he works hard and in earnest, he will be certainly plucked.
6. If he buys that house, he will run into debt.
7. If he acts so foolishly, he will certainly be ruined.
8. You would not be acting fairly, if you refused to hear him on his defence.
9. If you believe in my words, you will not be misled.
10. The king cannot impose taxes, unless the parliament consents.
11. He would have come to a miserable end, had not the law protected him.

IV. *Change the following sentences from Complex to Compound, using some Illative conjunction for combining the component clauses:—*

1. I must begin my book with a preface as other writers do.
2. Now that every one is convinced of your honesty, you are free to go.
3. Those bags should be carefully guarded, as every one is trying to steal them.
4. Seeing that almost all our friends are dead, what is the use of life?
5. I bought to-day's newspaper, that I might see the last news from the seat of war.
6. The prince was not permitted to enter the cottage, lest any one should say that he demeaned himself by so doing.
7. My orders were repeated three or four times, that there might be no misapprehension.
8. The people will give all their votes to A, lest B should be elected.
9. If he were here, I would tell him what I mean.
10. If you were not my senior, I would endeavour to teach you better manners.
11. He worked hard, as he had an object to work for.
12. He was taken very ill, because he had lost his only son.
13. He spoke the truth, because he feared the disgrace of falsehood.

(16) *The Interchange of Principal and Subordinate clauses.*

The Principal clause being that which is uppermost in the speaker's mind, and the Subordinate clause being merely a modification of it, we cannot usually put the one in the place of the other without altering the sense; and hence as a general rule no interchange of Principal and Subordinate clauses is permissible.

Nevertheless, it may sometimes happen that the speaker is indifferent which clause takes precedence of the other; or the facts expressed by the two clauses may be so closely dependent on each other, that it is immaterial to the sense whether the one or the other is made the Principal. In such instances the Principal and Subordinate clauses may change places:—

- { He is more eager to win a prize than to work for one.
- { He is not so eager to work for a prize as to win one.
- { He never borrowed what he did not afterwards repay.
- { He always repaid whatever he borrowed.

Rewrite the following sentences, making the Principal and Subordinate clauses change places:—

1. No sooner did the sun rise than the mist cleared up.
2. I always felt an appetite as soon as I heard the dinner bell.
3. He had scarcely finished speaking, when his orders were obeyed.
4. He had hardly left the ship, when his old dog recognised him and ran to meet him.
5. He never entered into a discussion, but he lost his temper.
6. The audience shouted applause, till they made themselves almost hoarse.
7. He reached the house about an hour after we had left it.
8. Before we had gone far, the child began to complain of fatigue.
9. The general cannot get more men, unless Parliament votes the money.
10. Unless you amend your ways, you will get into trouble.
11. He never promises what he does not intend to perform.
12. The judge put several questions to the witness, which he (the witness) could not answer.
13. He entered the room at the very moment when I was leaving it.
14. The surgeon could not lance the wound, before it began to mortify.
15. I was instructed to leave all those things in the place where I had put them.
16. The patient is progressing as well as could be expected.
17. He is not such a clever man as he was said to be.
18. I like the climate of this place more than I ever did before.

19. The stag never ceased running, till it had placed itself entirely out of danger.
20. Victory seems nearer to us to-day than it did yesterday.
21. I kept clear of that bull, which looked so fierce.
22. The promise that we have made shall be faithfully kept.
23. A tiger, which the bravest did not dare to attack, sprang out of the bush.
24. You are bound in duty to defend these rights which were bequeathed to you by your ancestors.
25. Thy descendants shall be masters of regions which Cæsar never knew.
26. I distrust that man because he is always talking about religion.
27. You have been bold enough to do what very few persons would have undertaken.
28. The masts of the ship are still seen in the place where it sank.
29. Pope began to write verses when he was only ten or twelve years old.
30. Our attack was maintained for ten hours before the walls of the enemy fell.
31. My workmen live on the same kind of food that I take myself.
32. The boy was sent back to his parents because he was taken seriously ill.
33. Be careful in walking over these rocks, lest you should fall and injure your ankle.
34. No one will trust you, unless he knows that you are rich.
35. I will not send them away fasting to their houses, lest they should faint by the way.
36. He cannot walk fast, because he is a little lame.
37. I endured his censure, because it was just.
38. He is such a false man, that no one will believe his words.
39. He is so full of his books that he has forgotten to use his common sense.

(17) Miscellaneous examples on the Transformation of Sentences.

Rewrite the following sentences according to the directions indicated below:—

1. Only the evening star has yet appeared. (Replace "only" by "none.")
2. Only the morning star has remained in sight. (Replace "only" by "all.")
3. He is so proud that he will not submit to correction. (Replace "so" by "too.")
4. After finishing the work, he asked for his pay. (Substitute a participle for the gerund, and an infinitive for the preposition with its object.)
5. After the pay had been given him, he put all he could spare into the savings bank. (Use the absolute construction.)
6. My son is now in his sixteenth year, and is almost qualified to enter some college. (Substitute a cardinal for the ordinal, and a Gerund for the Infinitive.)

7. My hope was that he would not enter college till he had had some grounding in science. (Cancel the "not.")
8. Though this rain is out of season, it will do some good. (Substitute "as" for "though.")
9. I went out and took an airing as soon as the clock struck 5 P.M. (Use "soon" in the comparative degree.)
10. Young men are taught English in these days for some other purpose than to become quill-drivers. (Insert "not" before "taught.")
11. Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven.—*Milton*. (Insert the Finite verb, begin the sentence with "to reign," and substitute "preferable" for "better.")
12. Death before dishonour. (Expand this into a complete sentence, and substitute some adjective in the comparative degree for "before.")
13. I would prefer a good knowledge of a few things to a bad knowledge of many. (Substitute an Infinitive verb for "knowledge," and "than" for "to.")
14. But for the careful nursing that she gave him, he would not have recovered. (Substitute a clause for "but," and a participle for "gave.")
15. No sooner had the sun shown itself above the horizon than he got out of bed to commence work. (Make the Adverbial clause the Principal one.)
16. I have not seen him since last Thursday. (Expand into two clauses, and change "since" from a Preposition to an Adverb.)
17. I last saw him three weeks ago. (Substitute the preposition "for" for the adverb "ago.")
18. I last saw him three weeks ago. (Expand into two clauses, and substitute a conjunction for the adverb "ago.")
19. I could not but feel sorry for what you had said. (Substitute the verb "help" for "but.")
20. Every person who was present can bear witness to my statement. (Rewrite this, using "but" in a relative sense.)
21. I am very desirous to meet you once more. (Rewrite this in an exclamatory form, using "oh !")
22. I wish that I could meet you once more. (Rewrite this, substituting "like" for "wish," and changing "could" into an Infinitive verb.)
23. The best scholar that ever left college, if he is discontented, is less to be envied than the poorest peasant who drives his plough in the field and finds some enjoyment in life. (Make the Principal clause Adverbial.)
24. He is so clever that I cannot keep pace with him. (Substitute "too" for "so," and change the sentence to a Simple one.)
25. He is so clever that I cannot keep pace with him. (Substitute "very" for "so," and change the sentence to a Compound one.)
26. He is so clever that I cannot keep pace with him. (Substitute "such" for "so," and make the Adverbial clause a Co-ordinate one.)
27. It was not till King Charles tried to seize the five members that the Commons began to take him for an enemy instead of a king. (Cancel "it was not," and reduce to a Simple sentence beginning with "the Commons.")

28. It is better to have health without riches than to have riches without health. (Substitute an adjective formed from "prefer" for "better.")

29. Nothing is worth doing, if it is not worth doing well. (Substitute an Adjective-clause commencing with "but" for the conditional one.)

30. He was more worthy of praise than any one else. (Make this sentence a Negative one.)

31. He was insolent enough to disobey his master. (Expand this into a Complex sentence, in which the verb "disobey" will be in the subordinate clause.)

32. He gained his end less by honesty than by cunning. (Substitute an adverb in the Positive degree for "less.")

33. The striking events which preceded Napoleon's downfall have made his name one of the most memorable in modern history. (Rewrite this sentence, commencing with "Napoleon's.")

34. As soon as the storm commenced, the boat upset. (Rewrite this as a Simple sentence.)

35. As soon as the storm commenced, the boat upset. (Make the Principal clause the Subordinate one, and use the adverb "hardly.")

36. Our *laziness* in duty increases with our *aversion* to work. (Substitute adjectives for the nouns italicised, and use "the—the.")

37. Having been idle for the whole of the past term, he could not get promotion. (Supply the clause implied in the participle.)

38. The doctor reached the house too late to find the patient alive. (Make this sentence a Negative one, but let it remain a Simple one.)

39. He was too late to help him. (Expand this into a Complex sentence.)

40. The whole of northern India was troubled, and its inhabitants perplexed, at the outbreak of the Indian mutiny. (Rewrite this as a Simple sentence, making "the outbreak" the subject.)

41. Your estate is twice as large as mine. (Substitute some other adverb for *twice*.)

42. It was my good *fortune* to find a friend in the time of need. (Rewrite this, substituting an adjective for the noun italicised, and cancelling "it was.")

43. No man is more ready to tell tales about other men's affairs than he who is perpetually asking questions. (Rewrite this, making "he" the subject of the principal clause.)

44. Every man within the British Empire can claim the protection of the law. (Rewrite this (a) in the form of a Negative sentence; (b) in the form of an Interrogative one.)

45. Ah! what a fall was there, my countrymen! (Rewrite this in the Interrogative form.)

46. If the Puritans suppressed bear-fighting, it was not done out of mercy to the bears, but because they desired to put an end to all popular amusements.—*Macaulay*. (Make the first Adverbial clause the Principal, and change the sentence from Complex to Compound.)

47. Work hard, or you will lose your place in the class. (Change this from Compound to Complex.)

48. But for the care taken by the doctor, your illness would have ended in your death. (Change this from Simple to Complex.)

49. We hope that better times are coming. (Reduce this to a Simple sentence.)

50. Although he was industrious, he failed in the final test. (Change "although" into "as.")

51. We started at 12 o'clock for Calcutta, which we reached at 4 P.M. (Substitute an equivalent word or words for "which.")

52. The child shrieked as if it were being killed. (Insert the necessary clause after "as.")

53. He glided quickly and quietly to the ground and escaped to another country, where he lived until the old sultan died. (Substitute an equivalent word or words for "where," and change the final clause into a phrase.)

54. He was an intelligent and quick lad; only he was very deficient in application. (Rewrite the second clause using "but" for "only," and using the verb "have" in the place of "deficient".)

55. He is supposed not to have done the exercise himself. (Make "exercise" the subject of the sentence.)

56. He is almost the best scholar in the class. (Use the positive for the superlative.)

57. He knows a good deal *for a lad of ten*. *For all his wealth* he is discontented. He has been educated *for the bar*. Oh *for a lodge in some vast wilderness!* (Substitute a clause for each of the italicised phrases.)

58. The force was not *strong enough* to *maintain order*. It is not *likely* that he will *fail*. He was so *bold* as to *defy* his enemies. (Substitute the noun form for each of the italicised words.)

59. The Britons, having long been unaccustomed to war, were easily conquered by the Saxons, after the departure of the Romans. (Expand into three clauses.)

CHAPTER XXIII—THE SYNTHESIS OF SENTENCES.

Synthesis is the process of binding the parts of a sentence into a whole. It is therefore the opposite to Analysis, which consists in breaking up the whole into its component parts.

The subject of Synthesis will be dealt with under the three headings shown below:—

- I. To combine Simple sentences into a Simple sentence.
- II. To combine Simple sentences into a Compound sentence.
- III. To combine Simple sentences into a Complex or Mixed sentence.

I. *To combine Simple sentences into a single Simple sentence.*(a) *By using Participles.*

{ Separate. He fled. He had seen a bear coming.
 Combined. *Seeing or having seen a bear coming*, he fled.

(b) *By using Absolute Phrases.*

{ Separate. The sun rose. The fog dispersed.
 Combined. *The sun having risen*, the fog dispersed.

(c) *By using Prepositions with nouns or gerunds.*

{ Separate. He gave them his advice. He helped them liberally.
 Combined. *Besides giving them his advice*, he helped them liberally.

(d) *By using Infinitives.*

{ Separate. He has three daughters. He must get them married.
 Combined. He has three daughters *to get married*.

(e) *By using Nouns or Phrases in apposition.*

{ Separate. He fled from his creditors. This was very dishonest.
 Combined. He fled from his creditors,—a very dishonest act.

(f) *By using Adverbs or Adverbial phrases.*

{ Separate. He was unconscious of his faults. His unconsciousness was complete.
 Combined. He was wholly (or utterly or completely or quite) unconscious of his faults.

(a) *Combine into Simple sentences by using Participles*

1. He worked hard. He felt tired.
2. He drew his sword. He rushed at the enemy.
3. He must confess his fault. Without making such a confession he will be fined.
4. He had half cut down the tree by 12 o'clock. He had still three hours left to finish it.
5. I took this journey to London yesterday. I desire to get the best medical advice.
6. I explained my case to the doctor. I was seated on a chair against the table at the time. I held my hat in my right hand.
7. The three brothers were joint heirs to that estate. They lived in the same house. For that reason they did not divide the property.
8. I met with an old friend unexpectedly. I was walking along the street at the time. It was then 10 o'clock A.M.
9. They were too late to catch the train. They tried therefore to

hire a conveyance. They hoped by this means to reach the bank in time.

10. He sat down to rest a little. He had had a long and tiring walk.

11. The father was very careful to make a clear will before his death. He left an equal share of his property to each of his sons.

12. He first selected a site. Then he levelled it. Then he dug the foundations. Finally he began to build a house.

13. The coachman struck the horse on its hinder parts. The horse was always inclined to kick. The horse then threw up its hind legs. It dashed one of them against the front-springs of the carriage.

14. Your letter never reached me. It had been addressed to the wrong house.

15. Turn to the left. You will then find the house.

16. The Spartan general fought bravely with a small band against the Persian host. He then died gloriously for his country.

17. Every now and then he came stealthily from behind the tree. Each time he cocked his gun. He was hoping to see some rabbit run by. He was hoping to shoot any such rabbit.

18. He at last found out the real facts. He had inquired carefully into every point. He had consulted every witness. He had examined every document. He had visited the spot. He had seen it with his own eyes.

19. I was seated safely on an elephant's back. I saw behind a thicket the head of a tigress. She was crouched in an attitude for making a sudden spring on a bull. The bull was unconsciously grazing a little distance off.

20. The bull heard the noise of something moving from the thicket. It then threw up its horns. It gored the tigress through her ribs.

21. A leopard saw me aim my gun towards it. It then sprang to one side. In this way it avoided the intended shot.

22. Men of long experience analysed the water. Such analysis cannot lead to a false report as to the quality of the water.

23. Cowper's pet dog plunged into the river. It swam out to get a lily. That lily was the one especially admired by the poet.

24. I was disgusted with the manners of the people in this place. I therefore decided to leave the place at once. I decided to find some other place to live in.

25. King Canute was arrayed in his royal robes. He was attended by his courtiers. He walked to the sea-shore. He took his seat upon a chair. The chair was previously placed there for his reception.

26. He was seated on the chair. He was surrounded by his courtiers. He was then told by them to await the influx of the tide.

27. The tide came up. It threatened to wash away the chair. That chair was occupied by the king. It forced the king to get up and go. In this way it proved the courtiers to be a pack of dishonest flatterers.

(b) *Combine into Simple sentences by using Absolute phrases:—*

1. The agreement was signed. All were satisfied.

2. The creditors were ruined. The bank had broke.

3. The fog was very dense. No one could see his way through the streets.

4. The town was well stocked with provisions. The guns were well stocked with ammunition. The enemy were forced to raise the siege.

5. The siege was over. The enemy withdrew. The city opened its gates. By this means its trade and prosperity rapidly revived.

6. The real culprit has confessed his guilt. The accused is therefore acquitted of the charge.

7. The business will now prosper. He and I have come to terms.

8. There is no proof of guilt against you. The only course open to me is to dismiss the case with costs.

9. Your son has been ill during the greater part of this term. His studies have fallen into arrears. I am unable to give him promotion.

10. St. Paul continued to preach at Rome. No man forbade him.

11. The plaintiff did not answer to his name. No one knows the reason of his absence. The court has decided to postpone the hearing of the case for the present.

12. The tents were pitched in a grove. The beds were placed inside the tents. A couple of blankets was supplied to each bed. In this way every one passed a warm and comfortable night.

13. The captain was mounted on an inferior horse. He was badly armed. The enemy had thus a good chance of gaining the day.

14. The captain was slain. The soldiers were therefore seized with a panic.

15. The peasant made his bow. The landlord had nothing more to say. The assessment was then fixed.

(c) *Combine into Simple sentences by using Prepositions with nouns or gerunds* :—

1. He made a promise. He kept it also.

2. He must serve twenty-five years. After that he can retire.

3. He must first serve twenty-five years. He cannot retire without doing that.

4. He is sorrowful. He is still hopeful.

5. The sons of Jacob saw their brother Joseph once more in Egypt. They could not then refrain from weeping aloud and falling on his neck.

6. He was in bad health. He was therefore unable to attend school regularly.

7. We were defeated. We were much disappointed at this.

8. He was a rich man. He had much civility shown to him for this reason.

9. He was very rich. He was thus able to build himself a fine house.

10. He had every qualification for success but one or two. He was slow of understanding and undecided in character.

11. It rained all day. The travellers suffered much inconvenience.

12. An alliance was recently formed in Europe. The parties to the alliance were Germany, Austria, and Italy. It was called the Triple Alliance.

13. In the forest a woodman met me. He had a hatchet in his hand and a bundle of sticks on his back.

14. I declared him to be guilty. Every one else declared him to be guilty.
15. He must confess his fault. He will be heavily fined otherwise.
16. We were much surprised. He had entirely deceived us.
17. He made a great effort. At last he gained his end.
18. He is very rich. He is still discontented.
19. We searched for the book. We could not find it.
20. They were sailing along in the barque. They were almost driven ashore by the wind.
21. The police searched his house. They were allowed to see and examine every part of it.
22. That defeat dealt a deadly blow. Their reputation for courage never recovered from it.
23. Julius Cæsar was a distinguished man. His shrewdness, pertinacity of purpose, and skill on the battle-field made him so.
24. The workmen saw the approach of a violent dust storm. They then took shelter in a hut. The hut was not far from the corner of the field.
25. I was visiting some relations. They then informed me of the news about my son. This was the first time I had been informed of the news.
26. The exploits of those famous warriors have been handed down to us in books. The books were written by ancient historians and poets.
27. Julius Cæsar entered the senate house. His mind was tranquil as usual. The senators went in immediately behind him. They were determined to assassinate him.
28. They walked together for more than a mile through the forest. They maintained a perfect silence to the end. Their minds were engrossed with the thought of the approaching conflict.
29. He heard the result. He demanded the reason. They then promised to give a full explanation of everything.
30. Every one was opposed to him. He never swerved from his purpose.
31. The result was altogether disastrous. Our side suffered the disaster.
32. The stag pricked up its ears. The sound of some one's feet made it do so.
33. The feats of the juggler were astonishing. Everyone standing by was astonished.
34. He did not succeed. He had made every effort.
35. The camels wanted their food. Bundles of leaves were brought. The peepul-trees furnished the leaves.
36. He bought a new gun. Its cost was three pounds. It was made by a London firm.
37. This book was written by me. In doing so I used a quill pen.
38. Bind that man with manacles. They should be fastened round his hands.
39. He died at last at the age of forty-five. Fever was the cause of his death. He had almost died from the same cause five years before.
40. You helped me out of that difficulty. I should have been ruined otherwise.
41. He gave me a book. He had exchanged one with me.

42. That man going along there is a highwayman. He has disguised himself as a pilgrim.

43. You are defending my interests. You are injuring your own.

44. He had difficulties to meet. He grappled bravely with them.

45. I like a book of travels. I do not like a novel or work of fiction so well.

46. A cup of water will often do a man good. A glass of wine is not so frequently beneficial.

47. The Hindus have laws of their own. The Mussulmans have laws of their own. The two sets of laws are not the same.

48. Miltiades was surnamed the Just. The name suited his character.

49. He is seriously ill. So at least he appears to be.

50. He might return this evening or he might not. I inquired of him which he would do.

51. My friend wrote a book. Its subject was proverbs. The proverbs contained in the book related to prudence, sanitation, and duty.

52. He must be a bad man. Your account of him leads me to infer this.

53. He is speaking the truth. His manner shows this.

54. He worked hard. He desired to earn his own living.

55. He lends out money. He charges six per cent.

56. She made the house ready. She was expecting her husband.

57. He saved up his money. An evil day might come.

58. Ceylon is an island. The nearest mainland is the southern coast of India.

59. The boat went out to sea. It left the shore two miles away.

60. He is a man of good character. He would not do anything mean.

61. He married a wife. She was of lower rank than himself.

(d) *Combine into Simple sentences by using Infinitives :—*

1. He has lost his health. This added to his difficulties.
2. He had a large family. He must provide for them.
3. He could not prepare well for the examination. He had not sufficient time.
4. They sell their potatoes to green-grocers. They plant them for this purpose.
5. Everyone should be honest and industrious. Our country expects this of every man.
6. He stayed at home and looked after his aged parents. This was his reason for staying there.
7. There is only one way. By that you may succeed.
8. The planets revolve round the sun in certain orbits. These revolutions have been observed by astronomers.
9. Julius Cæsar was declared to be a usurper. Brutus declared this; Cassius declared this.
10. His house and goods were sold. His debts had to be paid.
11. The poor old ox has little strength left. It cannot draw the plough over this heavy soil.
12. Men cross deserts by camels. There is no other way.

13. Several thousand men may have died in that battle. That was the report.

14. We hear the cuckoo's voice in early spring. In England it is a pleasant sound.

15. In India men travelled hundreds of miles by palkees ; that was the custom before the introduction of railways.

16. He stayed up at nights working out problems in mathematics. This was a pleasure to him.

17. In a football match each side must have its captain. The captain controls the game.

18. I thoroughly distrust that man. I must speak plainly at once on this point.

19. A disease may be cured. A disease may be prevented. This is the better of the two.

20. He must confess his fault. He will be fined otherwise.

21. He formed a resolution. He resolved that he would drink no more wine.

22. Some men can make a fortune out of small capital. No one finds it easy.

23. The French were far inferior to the English by sea. This fact was well known.

24. The head guides the rest of the body. It was made for this purpose.

25. My father was very much delighted. He had heard of my brother's success.

26. Your cousin had not much industry. He could not therefore keep his place in the class. He did not win a prize.

27. The child grew worse every day. The parents were therefore grieved.

28. The general has just come. The inspection of the volunteers is his object.

29. That man cheated all his creditors. He must have been mad.

30. The servant was desirous of showing his zeal. So in his master's presence he was very attentive and diligent.

31. The bank suddenly broke. Matters were thus made worse.

32. Suraj-ud-Doulah shut up a large number of prisoners in a suffocating dungeon. In doing such a thing he was very cruel.

(e) *Combine into Simple sentences by using Nouns or Phrases in apposition :—*

1. Cromwell assumed the powers of a king. He had once been a private gentleman. Next he was a popular leader in the Long Parliament. Then he was the commander of the Parliamentary forces. Finally he was called Protector.

2. Lord Clive commenced his career in India as a clerk. In that capacity he was a writer in a merchant's office. He ended his career with founding the British Empire in the east.

3. Suraj-ud-Doulah was nawab or viceroy of the Bengal province. The sovereignty of the Emperor of Delhi was nominal. He shut up his prisoners in the Black Hole. This was a suffocating dungeon in Calcutta.

4. Suraj-ud-Doulah perpetrated many atrocities. He oppressed the British merchants of Calcutta. He oppressed his own people no less. He was defeated at the battle of Plassey. This was a fit end to such an evil reign.

5. Byron had certainly some of the qualifications of a first-rate poet. He possessed great command of language. He was a keen observer of nature. He had an accurate knowledge of men and manners.

6. Sometimes he travelled in Italy. Sometimes he travelled in Greece. Sometimes he travelled in Switzerland. He always carried with him the same moroseness of temper.

7. John Bunyan wrote the book called Pilgrim's Progress. He had once been a thoughtless youth. After that he became a religious penitent.

8. Francis Bacon was Lord High Chancellor of England. He wrote many learned books. He devised a new system of logic. He has nevertheless been accused of doing many things unworthy of his high position.

(f) Combine into Simple sentences by using Adverbs or Adverbial phrases:—

1. He was wanting in application. This ruined him.

2. All the inmates escaped from the flames. This was fortunate.

3. The letter was addressed to the wrong house. It never reached me.

4. Notwithstanding his idleness in the past term he was confident of success. His confidence surprised me.

5. The rose is the sweetest of flowers. This is certain.

6. He begged for pardon. His request was not granted.

7. Most of the blame for that robbery was thrown on one of the house-servants. The servant deserved the blame.

8. He wrote a severe letter to the school-managers. That was his intention.

9. The boat was leaking. The sinking of the boat was unavoidable.

10. This boy is the cleverest in the school. No other boy can be compared with him.

11. He invested all his money in a single bank. The investment was not a prudent one.

12. By the breaking of the bank he lost all his money. The loss was necessary under the circumstances.

13. They defended themselves against the charge. Their defence was clever. Their defence was resolute.

14. Beware of wine. This is of the first importance.

15. He has been attending school this term. His attendance has been irregular.

16. He will return to us. He will not be long absent.

17. The tree was cut down. The cutting was gradual.

18. He searched for the lost watch in distant places. He searched for it in neighbouring places.

19. He dismissed his old ministers and advisers. This was a foolish

(g) *Miscellaneous examples.* Combine the following sets of sentences into *Simple sentences*, by any of the methods shown above:—

1. He is a wise man. This is well known to all.
2. The earth is round. Men of science have proved this.
3. Our side was victorious. Such was the result.
4. He was fined for some reason. The reason was unknown.
5. I asked him to grant me a request. He refused to grant it.
6. Some of the students work hard. All such students will get promotion.
7. Moses was the Jewish lawgiver. He was buried in a certain place. No one could find it.
8. We honour the name of Wellington. He won the battle of Waterloo. He destroyed the power of Napoleon.
9. He suffered for certain debts. His son had contracted them. His son was an improvident youth.
10. I have not much money. I cannot spare any.
11. They were in debt. They were thrown into prison for that reason.
12. The boy was determined to win a prize. He worked very hard.
13. I see he is working hard. I am therefore much pleased.
14. He was very quick in his answers. He was never defeated in argument.
15. He suddenly became rich. His conduct fell under suspicion.
16. He worked very regularly. He aimed at gaining a prize.
17. He labours day and night. By this means he hopes to become rich.
18. There was some fear of the failure of the plan. Every precaution was taken.
19. He fled across the border. He would otherwise have been caught.
20. He has had much experience. He is none the less incompetent.
21. The sea is deep. Mountains are high. The height and depth are equal.
22. Pardon his fault. You will thus show your usual forbearance.
23. He returned to duty. His leave had expired just before he did so.
24. The city was taken. The inhabitants fled.
25. We have no dictionary. We are therefore unable to look out the meaning of this word.
26. Things are not now going on well. They went on well previously. At that time he had not been placed in charge.
27. The whole house has been happy. Some one had brought us good news. This was the cause of the happiness.
28. English at one time was not spoken in Britain. It began to be spoken after the arrival of the Saxons.
29. Our success is said to be certain. This is by no means clear.
30. He intended to return soon. He told us so.
31. A serious famine prevailed. This was the cause of the riot.
32. He managed to succeed somehow or other. Did you inquire about the means?

33. Some things are known. Others are unknown. The former help us to understand the latter.
34. The house is now out of repair. It was taken by us two years ago.
35. Much trouble has come to us from this regulation. It ought to be cancelled.
36. Their only hope of escape lay in the coming of the ship. The ship now came fully into sight.
37. A star appeared in the East. Christ was born at that time.
38. Death must be destroyed. It is our last enemy.
39. Their position was now hopeless. They gave themselves up to the enemy in consequence.
40. The boy had won a prize. He was much pleased.
41. He could not speak. He was thoroughly ashamed of his misconduct.
42. They had no hope of his recovery. They all felt sad.
43. They could not be proved guilty of the charge. They were therefore acquitted.
44. They heard him confess his fault. They were therefore much surprised.
45. The problem was a very difficult one. It could not be solved.
46. He is a clever boy. No other boy is more clever.
47. I will convict you. In doing so I shall be guided by a sense of justice.
48. On all occasions he prepared his lessons. He did his best to prepare them well.
49. He had found out his mistake. He was very sorry. It was then too late.
50. The Mogul empire fell to pieces. Aurangzebe's reign was over.
51. The receipt has not been signed. The money will not be paid without this.
52. The English nobles remembered the example set them by their fathers. This was set them in the reign of King John. The government by Henry III. was equally bad. He had foreign favourites. The nobles were determined to put an end to these things.
53. Insurrections had come to an end. Henry VII. after this desired to marry his children. He desired to amass money. He devoted his attention to these two things.
54. The king spent the following year in Normandy. He desired to strengthen his position there. He desired to secure the succession of his son. The son was then eighteen years old.
55. There were 300 persons on board. Only one escaped. All the rest went down with the ship. One of the men drowned was Fitz-stephen. He was captain of the ship. The man who escaped was a butcher of Rouen.
56. Prince William had been drowned. Henry had only one object after this. His object was to secure the crown of England for his only daughter, Matilda. She had been married to the emperor. The emperor's name was Henry V. He was now dead.
57. Henry was fond of his children. This was one strong point in his character. His fondness for learning was another strong point. In other respects his character was devoid of any commendable qualities.

II. *To combine Simple sentences into a Compound sentence. —*

(a) *By using some Cumulative Conjunction :—*

Separate. He was declared to be guilty by the magistrate:
 Even his best friends believed the verdict to be just.
 Combined. Not only was he declared to be guilty by the magistrate, but even his best friends believed the verdict to be just.

(b) *By using some Relative Pronoun or Adverb in a Continuative sense (see § 134) :—*

Separate. We started for Calcutta yesterday. We shall stop there four days.
 Combined. We started yesterday for Calcutta, where we shall stop four days.

(c) *By using some Alternative Conjunction :—*

Separate. That animal may be a fish. It may be a serpent.
 It must be one of them.
 Combined. That animal is either a fish or a serpent.

(d) *By using some Adversative Conjunction :—*

Separate. He is poor. He is honest.
 Combined. He is poor, but honest.

(e) *By using some Illative Conjunction :—*

Separate. At the sight of a cat the mouse runs into its hole. The mouse fears the cat.
 Combined. At the sight of a cat the mouse runs into its hole ; for it fears the cat.

(f) *By combining the above processes :—*

Separate. The cat is meek. The cat is silent. The cat is sly. The cat is cruel. The mouse runs away at the sight of the cat. The mouse enters into its hole.
 Combined. The cat is meek and silent, but sly and cruel ; and hence the mouse runs away at the sight of it and enters its hole.

Combine the following Simple sentences into one Compound sentence :—

1. Two cats had stolen some cheese. They could not decide how to divide it equally between them. They decided on asking a monkey

to settle the dispute for them. They went to the monkey at once for that purpose. (Express by two Finite Verbs.)

2. The monkey agreed to hear and decide the case. He called the two cats before him. He held out a pair of scales. He put one piece of cheese in one scale and one in another. (Two Finite Verbs.)

3. He weighed the two pieces. He found one to be heavier than the other. He wished to make them of equal weight and size. He bit a piece off one of them. (Two Finite verbs.)

4. He passed the examination. No one expected him to do so. He came out at the head of the list of passmen. (Two Finite verbs.)

5. I was not the only person to hear this strange story. You heard it. You believed it to be true. I did not believe it. (Four Finite verbs, expressed or understood.)

6. Every boy should learn how to swim. Swimming is a fine healthy exercise. Swimming is often the means of saving one's own life. Swimming is often the means of saving the life of others. (Three Finite verbs.)

7. I am glad to see your love for gardening. The first thing to be done towards making a garden productive is to clear the soil of weeds. Nothing will grow well in an untidy soil. (Three Finite verbs.)

8. You seem to have made up your mind to work hard this year. This is something quite new. I am glad to see it. I hope your good resolutions will not fail. (Four Finite verbs.)

9. That hopping animal may be a frog. It may be a toad. It cannot be both. (Two Finite verbs, expressed or understood.)

10. He rushed out of the room in time. He would have been crushed to death by the falling of the roof. The roof fell very suddenly. It gave scarcely any warning of the impending crash. (Two Finite verbs.)

11. He is a rich man. He is not proud of his wealth. He makes no distinction between rich and poor. (Three Finite verbs.)

12. Look at the feet of a cat. You will see the reason of her skill in catching birds or mice. The feet are furnished with long, sharp claws. A bird or mouse once caught, cannot get loose from the claws. (Three Finite verbs.)

13. The air of the plains of India is often very hot. The air on mountain-tops in the same country is generally cool. This seems strange at first. The sun overhead is the same in either case. The sun shines on hills and plains alike. (Three Finite verbs.)

14. A brave and honest man will speak out. He will not be afraid of the consequences. A timid man may keep silent at the time of danger. He may tell falsehoods. He is afraid of some harm coming to him. (Three Finite verbs.)

15. In all labour there is profit. Mere talking tends only to failure. (Two Finite Verbs.)

16. A certain rumour was current. He was said to have been taken seriously ill. He was quite well. He wrote to me that very day. He informed me by letter of his intention to extend his business. (Three Finite verbs.)

17. In private life he was amiable. In private life he was even fond of amusement. In public life he was severe. In public life he was a rigorous dispenser of justice. (Two Finite verbs.)

18. A blind man carried a lantern in his hand. He carried a pitcher on his shoulder. He was walking along one night alone. He met a thoughtless young fellow. He was asked to explain the reason why he carried a lantern, although he was blind. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

19. The Prince of Wales was the son of Henry IV. of England. He had a strong sense of justice. He knew the duties of a subject. He knew the duties of a prince. He was hot-tempered. He was quick at taking offence. He was fond of the company of profligate men. On one occasion he struck Sir William Gascoigne. Sir William Gascoigne was a judge. He was at that time seated on the bench. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

20. Sir W. Gascoigne knew the dignity and power of his position. He resolved to do his duty at all hazards. He instantly ordered the Prince of Wales to be committed to prison. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

21. The Prince was now conscious of his fault. He submitted to the order. He allowed himself to be led away to prison. He had enough sense to know the necessity of obeying the law. In so doing he set an example to princes in all future ages. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

22. Life has few enjoyments. We cling to it. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

23. Some men die fighting on the battlefield. Such men die on a bed of honour. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

24. At this time of the year I do not rise at five o'clock in the morning. I rise a little before seven. (*Two Finite verbs, expressed or understood.*)

25. We would have entered that dark cave. We would have explored thoroughly its inner parts. We had no torches. We were forced to give up the attempt. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

26. The battle was over. Edward marched to Calais. He besieged it by sea and land. In the meanwhile, Robert Bruce took advantage of Edward's absence. He invaded England. He was king of Scotland. He was the ally of France. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

27. Calais was captured. A truce was then made between France and England. This was further prolonged by the outbreak of a plague. The plague was called the Black Death. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

28. The northern states of America had a contest with the southern. The contest lasted four years. The northern States fought for freedom. The southern States fought for slavery. In spite of their long resistance, the southern States were finally defeated. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

29. I am young. You are old and experienced. I was afraid of your age and dignity. I durst not speak my mind openly before you. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

30. The sluggard will not plough by reason of the toil. He shall beg in harvest. He shall have nothing. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

31. Cast thy bread upon the waters. Thou shalt find it after many days. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

32. It was now six o'clock in the evening. It was too late to start on our journey. We postponed starting till the following morning. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

33. The people of this place are thrifty. They are industrious. I

noticed the fertility of their fields. Their cottages were neat. Their persons were clean. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

34. I have no knowledge of the person referred to. I am unable to say any good of him. I am unable to say any evil of him. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

35. I am not the only person who has done wrong. You did wrong. You attempted to obtain a certificate on false pretences. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

36. All the beams in the roof of this house are made of teak. Teak is the strongest kind of wood in the East. It is much prized for building wooden houses. These are very often used by Europeans in Burma. (*Four Finite verbs.*)

37. You have never before heard of the Himalaya mountains. This is a very surprising fact. Your knowledge of geography must be very small. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

38. You were promoted. You had worked hard all last year. Two other students carried off the class-prizes. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

39. The robber was notorious for his evil deeds. The hermit was known everywhere for his good deeds. This made the robber jealous of the hermit. The hermit's reputation was superior to the robber's. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

40. Almost all the combatants were said to have been slain on the battlefield. A large number of them escaped alive. Many of these took up arms again in the following year. They wished to defend their country. They loved their country. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

41. The boat seemed likely to sink. He did not lose his courage. He continued pulling the oars. He brought the boat safely to land. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

42. He was clever, accomplished, and virtuous. He had one failing. He was of rather a timid disposition. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

43. He caught the robbers. He never got back the stolen property. The property consisted of gold and silver ornaments. It was worth 150 rupees. (*Four Finite verbs.*)

44. You made a deplorable mistake. You did it in ignorance of the facts and their consequences. You deserve pardon. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

45. According to the rumour, he was killed by a flash of lightning striking his house. The house was not struck by lightning. He was not at all hurt. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

46. We must reach Lucknow by four o'clock P.M. There is only one hour left. We must start at once. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

47. The storm had now passed. The sun rose above the horizon. Every drop of dew sparkled like a diamond. The birds warbled their morning hymns. The streams were dancing down the rocks or through the glens. The little brooks tinkled like silver bells. The trees, fanned by the morning breeze, waved the ends of their huge branches in the blue sky. The birds hopped about chirping their cheerful notes. All nature seemed to have put on its brightest and most pleasing colours. (*Nine Finite verbs.*)

48. He received all the pay promised him. He was dissatisfied. He filed a petition in court. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

49. Henry was not in a position to follow up his victory. He had

gained this victory on the field of Agincourt. He proceeded to Calais. From Calais he proceeded to Dover. At Dover he was received with the greatest enthusiasm. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

50. Perkin Warbeck was promised his life. He surrendered on that promise. He was carried in mock triumph to London. A confession of the imposture was published in London. The object of this publication was to satisfy the people. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

51. A poor Arab came suddenly upon a spring of sweet water. He had never before tasted any but brackish wells. He thought such sweet water fit only for a king. He filled his leathern bottle from the spring. He set off to present it to the Khalif. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

52. The courtiers pressed forward. They desired to taste this precious water. The Khalif forbade them to taste even a drop. The water had turned sour on the way. The Khalif did not desire to give offence to the peasant. The peasant was simple-minded. The peasant was loyal. (*Four Finite verbs.*)

53. You have finished the job before the time. You have done it in good style. This is more than I expected from you. You have never before shown so much quickness and energy. I have seen a great deal of you for many years past. (*Five Finite verbs.*)

54. The Jews begged Pilate to release Barabbas. They begged him to condemn Jesus to death. Jesus was innocent. Barabbas was a robber. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

55. He is a fool. He is a knave. (Combine these sentences in three different ways, so as (1) to give equal stress to both statements; (2) to give most stress to the first; (3) to give most stress to the second one.)

56. The monsoon failed. The tanks became almost empty. The fields could not be irrigated. No grain could be sown. A famine was feared. The ryots looked anxiously for the next monsoon. It proved more abundant than usual. The danger was averted. (*Madras Matriculation, 1888. Six Finite verbs.*)

57. Henry III. had several times confirmed the Magna Charta. He regarded that document as an encroachment upon the rights of a king. He broke its provisions on several occasions. He looked upon the English barons with suspicion as men desirous of lessening the kingly power. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

58. A boat was lowered. The prince at once put off from the sinking vessel. The nobles put off. He heard the cries of his half-sister. He returned to the vessel. His purpose was to save his half-sister. (*Two Finite verbs.*)

59. The nobles made Simon de Montfort their leader. He had married Henry's sister. Her name was Eleanor. They attended a council at Westminster in full armour. There they demanded the redress of national grievances. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

60. The barons were not content with having thus far humbled the king. They selected twelve of their number. The duty of these twelve was to act as a standing council. Good government was the object to be gained. These men did not consult the interests of the country. They usurped the royal power. They gave their chief care to the aggrandisement of their own families. (*Three Finite verbs.*)

III. To combine Simple sentences into a Complex or mixed sentence.

(a) The Noun-clause.

A Noun-clause can be introduced by the conjunction "that" in the sense of Apposition, or by some Relative pronoun (or adverb) whose Antecedent is not expressed, or by some words quoted in the Direct Narration:—

{ Separate. The rose is the sweetest of flowers. This is certain.
{ Combined. It is certain *that* the rose is the sweetest of flowers.
{ Separate. He is going to some place. No one knows it.
{ Combined. No one knows *where* he is going.

Combine into a Complex sentence containing one or more Noun-clauses, and make the italicised verb the predicate-verb of the principal clause:—

1. He will not return soon. He *declared* this to be his intention.
2. He will get us out of this difficulty in some way or other. His way of doing it *is known* to no one but himself.
3. Some one will be selected to watch my work. My reputation *will depend* on him.
4. Perhaps better luck is in store for us. We *hope* so.
5. Is there any hope of his success? That *was* my question.
6. He had made a serious mistake. He had caused much mischief thereby. Perceiving this he *confessed* his fault.
7. He was innocent. That *was* the verdict of the judge.
8. He is said to have committed some offence. He *desires* to be informed about it.
9. A man may steal my purse. In doing so he steals trash.
10. You have succeeded *very well*. This was news to us. It *gave* us much pleasure.
11. Moses was buried in some place. The place *was never known*.
12. He was dismissed from his post. The reason *was clearly explained* to him.
13. The meadow looks green and pleasant. *See* it.
14. A lazy man injures no one but himself. This *is not true*.
15. I have suffered many losses. No one pities me. This *is a fact*.
16. You have done an excellent day's work. I *was much pleased* to see it.
17. I *resolved* to be very careful. I say or do certain things in his presence.
18. A despised enemy may turn out a dangerous rival. This *has often happened*.
19. He will not remain here another day. He *told* them so.
20. Our friend will soon recover his health. There *is no doubt* of this.

21. He is going somewhere. I do not *know*. His best friends do not *know*.

22. What do you desire to have? I *will* grant you anything.

23. We can make our lives sublime. Lives of great men all *remind* us of this.

24. He cannot resist your claims. He cannot deny your merits. Of this you *may be sure*.

25. You require a certain amount of time for preparing your plans. You *shall be granted* it.

26. The messenger told us something about that matter. I *heard* it.

27. It was your duty to make the best use of your time at school. You *found out* this too late.

28. Your hopes about your son's future may or may not be fulfilled. Time alone *will show*.

29. Some one has been making a great noise. I *should like* to know the person.

30. Columbus discovered America in a certain way. He was provided with ships and men by a certain king. He met with certain difficulties in the way. I *should like* to be told about these things.

31. You have come from a certain place. You have come for a certain purpose. You began your journey on a certain day. You arrived here on a certain day. Tell me about these things.

32. The Russians, during the Crimean war, remained strictly on the defensive. It *is not* difficult to perceive the reason.

33. I have seen that man's face before somewhere. I *am sure* of it.

34. The earth moves round the sun. The sun does not move round the earth. It seems to move round the earth. Men of science *have clearly proved* these points.

(b) *The Adjective-clause.*

An Adjective-clause is introduced by some Relative pronoun or Relative adverb used in a *Restrictive* (that is, a qualifying) sense.

In composing an adjective-clause the student should remember that the Relative pronoun or Relative adjective should stand *as close as possible* to its antecedent; that is, no word should be placed between them, if it can be conveniently placed anywhere else.

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Separate. A man once had a goose. The goose laid every} \\ \text{day a golden egg.} \\ \text{Combined. A man once had a goose, } \underline{\text{that}} \text{ every day laid a} \\ \text{golden egg.} \end{array} \right.$
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Combine into a Complex sentence containing one or more Adjective-clauses, and make the italicised verb the predicate-verb of the principal clause:—

1. The messenger had a duty to perform. The duty *was* difficult.
2. I suffered anxiety. The anxiety *was* extreme.
3. He has done much good to the public. His services *cannot* be paid too highly.
4. Daniel *came* alive out of the den. In that den lions were kept.
5. An orator should possess a clear voice. My friend *does* not possess one.
6. We *came* upon a certain cottage. Here a shepherd was living with his family.
7. The Saxon and Danish languages *were* dialects of a certain language. This language was once widely spoken in Europe.
8. Every one spoke well of that man thirty years ago. He was then a fine young warrior. Now he *has become* a confirmed drunkard.
9. One of the great annual fairs *is held* at Muttra. Muttra is visited on that occasion by many pilgrims from all parts of India. Muttra *is* one of the most ancient cities of Hindustan.
10. I *went* down a footpath. At the end of the footpath there was a chasm. The depth of the chasm was about twenty feet. The dead body of a man was lying there. A faithful dog was still seated by its side.
11. A small rest-house stood at the foot of the hill. We *stopped* there for the night.
12. The shipwrecked mariners *watched* for the appearance of a ship. All their hopes of escape were centred on this vessel.
13. He had received a good education. This *raised* him above many men of his own age.
14. In our ramble through the forest we *came* upon a thatched cottage. A fine cedar tree was growing by its side.
15. He has no money laid *by*. He cannot borrow. He cannot earn a good monthly income. A man of that kind *must not attempt* to embark in trade.
16. The Greeks were a nation of antiquity. They *were* the first to become civilised.
17. The body of conspirators *met* together secretly. Their place of meeting was a private house. Their object was to murder the king.
18. The Indian Empire was acquired by the British in various different ways. He briefly *described* the most important of these to the audience.

(c) *The Adverb Clause.*

An Adverb-clause can be introduced by any of the Subordinate conjunctions or by a Relative pronoun (or adverb) used in an adverbial sense (see § 284).

Subordinate conjunctions.

<i>Separate.</i>	He left off trying to do his best. He could not give satisfaction anyhow.
<i>Combined.</i>	He left off trying to do his best, <i>as</i> he could not give satisfaction anyhow.

Relative pronouns.

{ *Separate.* My son had no sleep last night. He must be very tired to-day.
 { *Combined.* My son, *who* had no sleep last night, must be very tired to-day.

Combine into a Complex sentence containing one or more *Adverb-clauses*, and make the italicised verb the predicate-verb of the Principal clause:—

1. All men must die and be forgotten. Why then *does* he seek for fame and riches?
2. He *gave* up most of his spare time to home-preparation. He wished to gain a scholarship at the end of the term.
3. You must sign your name. He *will* then *agree* to your terms.
4. He became more and more rich. He *was* never contented.
5. He *is* a lazy boy. The other boys in the class are not equally *lazy*.
6. Men may sow much or little. They may sow prudently or imprudently. They *will* *reap* accordingly.
7. He found out his mistake. He *was* then very sorry.
8. He *learnt* English very rapidly. He astonished his teacher thereby.
9. A thief *goes* about his work very cautiously. He does not wish to be caught.
10. I *may* perhaps be allowed to speak. I *can* then explain everything.
11. He has been very unfortunate. He *is* always cheerful.
12. He *is* a clever boy. No other boy in the class is more clever.
13. He was directed to do something in a certain way. He *did* it accordingly.
14. The school-bell rang. All immediately *went* to their places.
15. Life may continue for some time. During such time there *is* still hope.
16. He *persevered* day and night. At last he gained his end.
17. The rain may or may not fall this month. With the fall of rain there *will be* no fear of famine.
18. He possessed enormous wealth. He never *enjoyed* peace of mind. He never enjoyed freedom from care.
19. A man gets more wealth. He then *wants* more.
20. You have treated me in a certain way. I *will treat* you in the same way.
21. The world may last for an indefinitely long period. During such period the sun *will continue* to rise.
22. He may or may not be careful. Without great care he *will come* to serious harm.
23. The branches of some trees grow to a great height. Their roots *are* not equally deep.
24. *Forgive* him. Thou art a man of mercy.
25. I *must have* your receipt. I then consent to *paying* the money.

26. He *continued* staring at that elephant. He seemed not to have seen one before.
27. The mountains *increase* in height. The air proportionately *increases* in coolness.
28. Men may behave well or ill in this life. Hereafter they *will be* blessed or miserable accordingly.
29. He was not yet seventeen years old. He *could* not at that age take possession of his estates.
30. He may give me leave. He may not give me leave. I *shall go* back to my parents in either case.
31. India fell under British rule. It *has* always from that time forward *been* free from invasion.
32. Every green thing *began* to wither. The hot weather had set in.

(d) Miscellaneous examples of simple sentences to be combined into Complex, Compound, or Mixed sentences. The italicised verb shows the predicate-verb of the Principal clause. The other clauses in each sentence are either Co-ordinate or Subordinate.

1. The murder was proved. The judge then *ordered* the man to be executed. The man *had been* four days under trial. (One co-ordinate clause.)
2. The supply of pasture often runs short. The nomads of Tartary then *shift* their abode. They *search for* new pasture elsewhere. (One subordinate clause.)
3. We heard the sad news. We immediately *started* for the afflicted house. There we found the mourners. (One co-ordinate clause.)
4. They spoke in defence of their absent friend. They *could not have spoken* better. (One subordinate clause.)
5. He behaved prudently under the circumstances. Few men *would have acted* so prudently. (One subordinate clause.)
6. Suraj-ud-Doulah was defeated. He fled from the field of battle. His horse *could not carry* him more than a few miles. His horse was of the purest Arab blood. (Two subordinate clauses.)
7. His difficulties become greater and greater. He *shows* more and more energy. (One subordinate clause.)
8. I *will visit* your house in June next. You have frequently asked me to do so. I will not disappoint you any longer. (One subordinate and one co-ordinate clause.)
9. The followers of Suraj-ud-Doulah *deserted* him. They hated his cruelty and vices. They had often praised him to his face. (One subordinate clause.)
10. Richard I., the king of England, *was seized* with remorse. He had rebelled against his father. The father at that time was an old man. He was much attached to all his sons. (One co-ordinate clause.)
11. I *am* very sorry. He has lost all hope. He has given up work. He worked hard last year. He has excellent abilities. (Two subordinate and two co-ordinate clauses.)
12. I *left* him to his fate. He persisted in refusing help. I offered

him help on all occasions. On such occasions he needed it. (Three subordinate clauses.)

13. The ships *were* in the greatest danger. They had not been sufficiently warned. A violent storm was rising. Yesterday the wind was calm. (One co-ordinate and two subordinate clauses.)

14. He is attacked unjustly. He is blamed for serious faults. He has not been guilty of such faults. He *becomes* for this reason very much vexed. (One subordinate clause.)

15. The prince cannot increase his forces. He *must* first *raise* the money. He cannot pay his men without this. He cannot without this induce them to fight cheerfully for his cause. (One subordinate and two co-ordinate clauses.)

16. You may still perhaps succeed in your object. You *must* *persevere* steadily. Success is impossible without this. (One subordinate and one co-ordinate clause.)

17. We expostulated with him. He *would* not *yield*. He kept to his own purpose. This purpose was certain to work much mischief. (Two co-ordinate clauses.)

18. He puts on a grave face. At heart he *is* a foolish fellow. No one trusts him. He has disappointed us a hundred times already. (One subordinate and two co-ordinate clauses.)

19. The result may be of this kind or that. We at least *are* now out of danger. (One subordinate clause.)

20. I *gave* the man the same instructions again and again. I wished him to avoid making mistakes. Mistakes at such a time might be fatal. (Two subordinate clauses.)

21. They *adopted* very decisive measures. They wished to put an end to all further difficulties. (A simple sentence.)

22. We found that the worst dangers were over. For this reason we *were* greatly relieved. (One subordinate clause.)

23. He was armed with a coat of mail. Hence the blows of his assailants *had* no effect. The blows fell thickly upon him. (Two subordinate clauses.)

24. You may open your eyes anywhere. You *will see* on all sides signs of famine. The famine has been caused by the want of seasonable rain. (One subordinate clause.)

25. He *kept* his class in good order. Hence they did not all speak at once. Only one spoke at a time. The one who spoke, spoke in his proper turn. (Three subordinate clauses.)

26. He acts in a certain way. From acting in that way he *seems* to be guilty. (One subordinate clause.)

27. The authors of "this outbreak" *are* disappearing. They are melting away. The mist in the same way melts before the sun. Clouds in the same way are broken by the wind. Leaves in the same way are scattered by the breeze. (One co-ordinate and three subordinate clauses.)

28. He *wept* at the sad news. A child would have wept in the same way. (Two subordinate clauses.)

29. The people *were* not ill-prepared for war. Every man had been trained to arms once in his life. That was the law of the country. That law was always faithfully observed. (One subordinate and one co-ordinate clause.)

30. His sons and daughters *were* much distressed. He was led away before their eyes. They thought he was being led away to his death. (One subordinate clause.)

31. They *were* much delighted. They saw him come back. He held in his hand the king's pardon. (A simple sentence.)

32. The lion was let out of its cage for the amusement of the spectators. It *did* not then run at Androcles to devour him. It came up quietly. It fawned upon him. A dog fawns in the same way upon its master. It licked his hand. He had been kind to it in the forest. It remembered this. (Three co-ordinate and two subordinate clauses.)

33. I walked with him to the sea-shore. The wind at that time *was sighing* mournfully around us. It seemed to sympathise in our sorrow at his leaving us so soon. (One subordinate and one co-ordinate clause.)

34. They had now finished their meal. They at once *resumed* their journey. They walked another ten miles. They then stopped and rested. (One co-ordinate and two subordinate clauses.)

35. The heretics could not be convinced of their error. Hence attempts *were made* to compel them to recant. The means used were fire and sword. All such attempts failed. The heretics remained unconvinced as before. (One subordinate and two co-ordinate clauses.)

36. The dog could not enter the kennel. The hole *was* too small. It had been made for a smaller animal. The purchaser had not widened it. (Two co-ordinate clauses.)

37. There is no longer any fear of invasion. The army *may be reduced*. The ships may return into port. The sailors may go back to their homes. (One subordinate and two co-ordinate clauses.)

38. He *is* now an old man. He cannot learn. He *could* have learnt in his younger days. (One co-ordinate clause.)

39. The wind was strong. It drove the ship ashore. The ship struck into the sand. It remained fixed there for several days. (One co-ordinate clause.)

40. The town of Upsala *is looked upon* as an historic centre of this there is no doubt. Here the sanctuaries of Paganism once flourished. Many monuments of them still survive within and around the modern town. (Two co-ordinate clauses.)

41. For an hour he *continued* telling them stories of absorbing interest. They all had the element of mystery. All of them dealt with crimes. The crimes thus dealt with were atrocious. They were equally inexplicable. (Two co-ordinate clauses and one subordinate.)

42. I have devoted my life to teaching. To a man in my position there is something exciting in finding himself in sight of an ancient university. This *is* a fact. (Two subordinate clauses.)

43. The next two months *were* most pleasantly *spent* in this lovely island. During that time we made many friends amongst the planters. We also enjoyed their hospitality. They are noted for being hospitable. (Two co-ordinate and one subordinate clause.)

44. Henceforth Axel's progress in his studies *was* surprising. In comparison with other boys he could devote little time to them. Considering this fact his progress was indeed surprising. (One subordinate clause.)

45. Mr. Merriman *left* the cottage. He crossed the river. He returned almost immediately. He was accompanied by five Dyaks. He had met them in the Chinese quarter. They had arrived there with a boat-load of commodities collected from the jungle. (One coordinate clause and two subordinate clauses.)

46. Marsupials are a kind of animal. They have pouches for carrying their young. They *were* once scattered all over the world. Most of them have long since become extinct. The survivors are thus confined to two quarters of the globe. One quarter is Australia. Here we find kangaroos, wombats, etc. The other quarter is a limited portion of America. Here we find only one small group. This group is the opossums. (Five clauses besides the principal.)

47. In the opossums the pouch *is* very small. It is thus useless as a receptacle for the little ones. The mother carries these on her back. The mother carries as many as a dozen. Their tails are lashed round hers. (One clause besides the principal.)

48. In former times there *was* a class of persons. They were called knights-errant. They were clad in coats of mail. They rode about singly. One object was to fight with each other at tournaments. The other object was to redress the wrongs of persons. These persons sought their assistance. (Three clauses besides the principal.)

49. (a) In those times two strong and warlike knights came from opposite directions. They *met* at a certain place. In that place a statue was erected. (One clause besides the principal.) (b) In the arm of the statue *was* a shield. One side of the shield was of iron. The other side was of brass. The two knights approached the statue from opposite quarters. Each saw only one side of the shield. (Four clauses besides the principal.) (c) They immediately *fell* into conversation in regard to the statue before them. One declared that the shield was made of iron. The other corrected him. It was made of brass according to his assertion. (Two clauses besides the principal.)

50. (a) Two persons sometimes attempt to decide a dispute by fighting. One man may be right on the disputed question. The other may be wrong. To settle such a question by fighting is very absurd. You *will* think so. (Three clauses besides the principal.) (b) But persons may be ignorant. They may be proud. They may be conceited. Among such people that mode of settlement *has been* a common practice in the history of mankind. A long and furious combat now ensued between the two knights. They fought earnestly over this petty question. They would not have fought more earnestly for their lives or honour. (Three clauses besides the principal.) (c) They had fought for a long time. Both *were* at last exhausted. Both were unhorsed. Both lay bleeding on the ground. They then found out something new. It surprised and vexed them greatly. The sides of the shield were of different metals. They might have saved themselves the trouble of quarrelling and wounding each other for nothing. But they had not taken the trouble at first to look at both sides of the shield. (Five clauses besides the principal.)

PART IV.—WORD-BUILDING AND DERIVATION.

CHAPTER XXIV.—COMPOUND WORDS.

439. A word that cannot be reduced to a simpler form is called a *simple* or primary word; as, *join*, *good*, *drink*, *man*, *hope*. Such words are called also *Roots*.

440. When two words are joined together so as to make one, the word so formed is called a *compound word*; as *ink-pot*, *door-step*, *horse-shoe*, *drinking-water*.

441. Compound words are subdivided into two classes:—

I. Unrelated, or those in which the Simple words are not connected together by any grammatical relation. (These have been also called Juxta-positional.)

II. Related, or those in which there is some grammatical relation between the component words. (These have been also called Syntactical.)

I. UNRELATED OR JUXTA-POSITIONAL COMPOUNDS.

442. In all compounds of this class the word that stands *first* defines the one that stands *second*:—

Thus "*horse-race*" means that kind of race which is run by *horses*, and not by boats or by men or by anything else. But "*race-horse*" means that kind of horse which is used for *racing*, and not for ordinary riding, or for drawing a carriage.

443. Nouns can be made up in the following ways:—

(1) A noun preceded by another noun:—

Oil-lamp, *lamp-oil*, *ear-ring*, *ring-finger*, *rail-way*, *way-side*, *trap-door*, *door-step*, *jaw-bone*, *bone-handle*, *sign-post*, *post-man*.

(2) A noun preceded by a Gerund:—

Cooking-stove, looking-glass, drinking-water, bathing-place, spelling-book, stepping-stone, sealing-wax, writing-desk, walking-stick, schooling-fee, sticking-plaster, blotting-paper.

Note.—Sometimes for the sake of shortness the “ing” in the middle of the word has been dropped:—

Wash-house for washing-house, grind-stone for grinding-stone, tread-mill for treading-mill, stand-point for standing-point, store-house for storing-house, saw-mill for sawing-mill, workshop for working-shop.

(3) A noun preceded by an adverb. (Such compounds must be classed as Unrelated, because adverbs do not qualify nouns: see § 224 and page 276.)

By-word, by-play, by-path, under-tone, under-wood, up-land, in-land, in-nate, in-side, after-glow, after-thought, after-life, over-dose, over-coat, counter-part, counter-check.

444. Adjectives can be made up in the following ways:—

(1) An adjective or participle preceded by a noun. The noun may denote:—

(a) Some point of resemblance, as *milk-white*, that is, white like milk:—

Snow-white, blood-red, coal-black, sky-blue, ice-cold, stone-blind, sea-green.

(b) Some point of reference, as *tongue-tied*, that is, tied in the tongue:—

Air-tight, water-tight, fire-proof, head-strong, heart-broken, top-heavy, colour-blind, blood-thirsty, penny-wise.

(c) The cause or source of the quality denoted by the adjective, as *home-sick*, that is, sick on account of home:—

Bed-ridden, purse-proud, heaven-born.

(d) The extent or measure of the quality denoted by the adjective, as *skin-deep*, that is, as deep as the skin and no more:—

World-wide, breast-high, life-long.

(2) A noun preceded by a noun. The second noun must have *d* or *ed* at the end of it, as *eagle-eyed*, that is, one whose eye is like that of an eagle (see § 203).

Chicken-hearted, hook-nosed, ox-tailed, web-footed, cow-houghed, dog-faced, honey-mouthed.

(3) An adjective or participle preceded by an adjective.

Here the adjective that stands *first* qualifies the one that stands second, as per § 442. (Such compounds come under the class of Unrelated, because in grammar an adjective qualifies a noun, and not another adjective.)

Red-hot, dark-brown, bright-blue, dead-alive, luke-warm, worldly-wise, free-spoken, fresh-made, ready-made, wide-spread, thorough-bred, dear-bought, fool-hardy, full-grown, high-born, thick-set, new-laid.

445. Verbs can be made up in the following ways:—

(1) A verb preceded by a noun:—

To *hen-peck*; said of a woman who annoys her husband, as a hen sometimes pecks a cock.

To *brow-beat*; to threaten or frighten a person with scowling and disdainful looks.

To *top-dress*; to dress or manure land on the surface without digging it in.

To *back-bite*; to bite any one at the back, hence to speak ill of him in his absence.

To *hood-wink*; to make a person wink or shut his eyes by throwing a hood over him; hence to deceive him by false words or false appearances.

To *way-lay*; to lie in wait for a man on the way; hence to stop a man on the road for an evil purpose.

(2) A verb preceded by an adjective:—

To *safe-guard*; to guard a thing or person so as to make it safe.

To *rough-hew*; to hew wood into a certain shape, but so that it still remains rough and unfinished.

To *white-wash*; to wash or daub a wall with a liquid which gives it a white colour when it is dry.

To *rough-shoe*; more commonly used in the participial form "rough-shod," shod with pointed shoes.

To *dumb-found* or *dumb-founder*; to confound or confuse a person so as to make him dumb. This is more commonly used in the participial form "dumb-founded" or "dumb-founded."

II. RELATED OR SYNTACTICAL COMPOUNDS.

446. Nouns can be made up in the following ways:—

(1) A verb Transitive followed by its noun in the Objective case:—

A tell-tale (one who tells tales, a sneak), a cut-throat, a pick-pocket, a skin-flint, a turn-key, a pas-time, a make-shift, a stop-gap, a break-fast, a break-water.

(2) A verb Transitive preceded by its noun in the Objective case. (Here the suffix "er" is added to the verb.)

(a) *A Common noun signifying an agent* :—

Shoe-maker, man-eater, tax-payer, snake-charmer, purse-holder, brick-layer, sooth-sayer, rat-catcher, fox-hunter, screw-driver, pen-wiper, engine-driver, tax-gatherer, watch-maker.

(b) *A Verbal or Abstract noun ending in "ing"* :—

Shoe-making, snake-charming, watch-making, engine-driving, tax-gathering, house-building, etc.

Note.—Sometimes the "er" under (a) and the "ing" under (b) are omitted for the sake of shortness, as in *tooth-pick* for *tooth-picker*, *blood-shed* for *blood-shedding*, *hero-worship* for *hero-worshiping*.

(3) *A verb qualified by an adverb* (see § 232).(a) *When the adverb precedes the verb* :—

An out-turn, an out-look, an out-fit, an up-start, an in-set, an in-come, off-spring, an on-set, an off-set, an out-break.

(b) *When the adverb is placed after the verb* :—

A run-away, a cast-away, a break-down, a break-up, a keep-sake, a fare-well, a lock-up, a draw-back, a stand-still, a go-between.

Note.—Some compounds of this class have two forms; *set-off* or *off-set*; *turn-out* or *out-turn*; *look-out* or *out-look*.

(4) *A noun qualified by an adjective* :—

A noble-man, a half-penny, a mad-man, a strong-hold, free-trade, mid-day, a sweet-heart, dumb-bells, proud-flesh, low-lands, quick-silver, quick-sand, etc.

(5) *A noun qualified by a participle* :—(a) *Present Participle* :—

Humming-bird, loving-kindness, spinning-top, finishing-stroke.

Note.—Sometimes the final "ing" is dropped; as in *screech-owl*, for *screeching-owl*, *mock-bird* for *mocking-bird*, *glow-worm* for *glowing-worm*.

(b) *Past or Passive Participle*. (Here the final "ed" is dropped.)

Compound-noun for compounded noun, hump-back for humped-back, lock-jaw for locked-jaw, char-coal for charred-coal, rack-rent for racked-rent, foster-child for fostered-child, skim-milk for skimmed-milk.

(6) *A noun qualified by a Possessive noun* (see § 286). (Here however the apostrophe *s* is dropped.)

Sales-man (for sale's-man), bats-man, oars-man, trades-man, kins-man, herds-man, crafts-man, bees-wax, states-man, sports-man, hunts-man.

Note 1.—In the following words the apostrophe *s* has been retained: *stone's-throne*, *king's-bench*, *cat's-paw*, *heart's-ease*, *land's-end*.

The noun *spoke's-man* has been formed by a false analogy, as there is no such word as "spoke" for "speech."

Note 2.—The following compounds, since the first word does not take the Possessive form, belong to the class of Unrelated compounds:—*boat-man, sea-man, oil-man, wood-man, cart-man, plough-man, head-man, watch-man, foe-man, fire-man, horse-man.*

(7) A noun in apposition with another noun or with a pronoun:—

Washer-man, washer-woman; he-goat, she-goat; man-servant, maid-servant; gentleman-farmer, child-wife, lady-doctor, peasant-proprietor, barber-surgeon, oak-tree, boy-magistrate.

(8) A noun preceded and governed by some preposition:—

After-noon (that part of the day which comes after noon, or after twelve o'clock); fore-noon (that part of the day which comes before noon).

447. Adjectives can be made up in the following ways:—

(1) A noun preceded and qualified by an adjective. (Here the participial suffix "*ed*" is added to the noun, as has been shown in § 203.)

Evil-hearted, hot-headed, long-tailed, one-sided, red-coloured, long-legged, bare-footed, quick-sighted, public-spirited, thick-skinned, sharp-edged, narrow-minded.

(2) A noun preceded and governed by the Present participle of some Transitive verb:—

A man-eating tiger; a heart-rending sight; a time-serving man; a soul-stirring story; a mind-expanding subject, a self-sacrificing act.

(3) A noun preceded and governed by some preposition:—

An over-land (over the land, and not by water) journey; an under-hand trick; over-time work (work done beyond or over the time); up-hill work; an out-of-door occupation.

448. Verbs can be compounded with adverbs:—

(a) When the adverb precedes the verb. (Uncommon.)

Back-slide, cross-question, over-awe, over-hear, under-state, under-value, over-estimate, with-hold, with-draw.

(b) When the verb precedes the adverb. This is very common. The two words are generally written separately; as *turn out, come on, etc.*; but in *doff* (=do + off), and *don* (=do + on) they are amalgamated.

Exercise in Compound Words.

Say whether each of the following compounds belongs to the class of Related or of Unrelated; and, if it belongs to the former, show what the grammatical relation is:—

Uphill, single-legged, lockjaw, outlet, bricklayer, pickpocket, hard-fought, chicken-hearted, penny-wise, pound-foolish, tread-mill, sunstroke, shoe-making, salesman, pastime, bloodshed, postman, whitewash, backbite, underground, undergrowth, after-life, afternoon, humpback, mock-bird.

CHAPTER XXV.—PRIMARY DERIVATIVES.

449. A Derivative word is called *Primary*, when it is formed out of some root or Primary word by making some change in the body of the root; as, *strike*, *stroke*.

It is called *Secondary*, when some Prefix or Suffix or both are added to it.

450. Nouns have been formed in the following ways:—
(1) From verbs by changing the sound of the inside vowel:—

Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.
Bite	bit.	Sneak	snake.	Melt	malt.
Write	writ.	Bear	bier.	Sit	seat.
Gape	gap.	Deal	dole.	Sing	song.
Scrape	scrap.	Fly	flea.		stack.
Chop	chip.	Learn	lore.	Stick	stake.
Sup	sop.	Drive	drove.		steak.
Wreak	wreck.	Dive	dove.		stock.
Flout	flet.	Bind	bond.	Strike	stroke.
Shear	share.	Clack	clock.		streak.

(2) From verbs by changing the last consonant, and sometimes the inside vowel:—

Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.
Burn	brand.	Bulge	boil.	Gird	girth.
Stick	stitch.	Advise	advice.	Seethe	sud, suds.
Speak	speech.	Bake	batch.	Burst	breast.
Live	lifa.	Break	breech.	Grieve	grief.
Choose	choice.	Wreak	wretch.	Strive	strife.
Wake	watch.	Weave	{ web. woof.	Say	saw.*
Wring	wrench.				

* Note.—Here *saw* signifies a “wise saying” or “maxim.”

(3) From adjectives by changing the inside vowel, and sometimes the last consonant:—

Adject.	Noun.	Adject.	Noun.	Adject.	Noun.
Dull	dolt.	Base	bass.	Strong	string.
Crisp	crape.	White	wheat.	Grave	grief.
Loose	lose.	Proud	pride.	Brief	breve.
Black	blotch.	Hot	heat.	Crass	grease.

451. Adjectives have been formed from verbs or nouns by changing the inside vowel or the last consonant:—

Root.	Adject.	Root.	Adject.	Root.	Adject.
Milk	milch.	Wring	wrong.	Blink	blank.
Float	fleet.	Wit	wise.	Lie	low.

452. Verbs have been formed in the following ways:—

(1) From nouns by changing the inside vowel:—

Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.
Blood	bleed.	Knot	knit.	Scum	skim.
Brood	breed.	Gold	gild.	Sale	sell.
Food	feed.	Brooch	broach.	Tale	tell.

(2) From nouns by softening the sound of the last consonant:—

Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.
Sooth	soothe.	Thief	thieve.	Grease	grease.
Half	halve.	Be-lief	be-lieve.	House	house.
Calf	calve.	Wreath	wreathe.	Use	use.

(3) From nouns by both changing the sound of the inside vowel and softening the sound of the last consonant:—

Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.	Noun.	Verb.
Glass	glaze.	Cloth	clothe.	Breath	breath.
Grass	graze.	Bath	bathe.	Dike	dig.

(4) From adjectives by changing the inside vowel:—

Adject.	Verb.	Adject.	Verb.	Adject.	Verb.
Hale	heal.	Foul	de-file.	Fain	fawn.
Full	fill.	Cool	chill.	Fresh	frisk.

(5) From other verbs of kindred roots, but different meanings:—

Verb.	Verb.	Verb.	Verb.	Verb.	Verb.
Wring	wrench.	Slit	slash.	Swirl	swerve.
Lurk	lurch.	Smack	smash.	Split	splice.
Chop	cope.	Snap	snip.	Sprout	spurt.
Crack	creak. crash. croak.	Sup	sip.	Yell	yawl.
		Tweak	twitch.	Blur	blear.
		Bind	bend.	Can	con.

(6) Intransitive verbs have received a Transitive or

Causal sense by changing the inside vowel, § 157. In the last two examples the Causal sense is now lost:—

<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>	<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>	<i>Intrans.</i>	<i>Trans.</i>
Quail	quell.	Swoop	sweep.	Clink	clench.
Drink	drench.	Fare	ferry.	Rise	{ raise. rear.
Bite	bait.	Sit	set.	Blink	blench.
Can	{ken. con.	Fall	fell.	Wind	wend.
		Lie	lay.		

CHAPTER XXVI.—SECONDARY DERIVATIVES: SUFFIXES AND PREFIXES.

453. When a particle is added to the beginning or to the end of a root, or to both, the word so formed is called a **SECONDARY DERIVATIVE**: as, *un-man-ly*.

Particles added to the *end* of a root are called **Suffixes**; as, “*good*,” “*good-ness*.”

Particles added to the *beginning* of a root are called **Prefixes**; as, “*deed*,” “*mis-deed*.”

454. The three sources from which most of the Suffixes and Prefixes have come are:—

- I. Teutonic.
- II. Romanic (Latin or French).
- III. Greek.

§ 1.—TEUTONIC SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

455. An Agent or Doer:—

-er, -ar, -or: *bak-er, do-er, mill-er, li-ar, tail-or, sail-or, cloth-i-er, court-i-er, law-y-er, saw-y-er*.

-ster (fem.): *spin-ster*. It is not Feminine, but merely marks the agent in *song-ster, malt-ster, trick-ster, young-ster, huck-ster*, etc.

-en (fem.): *vix-en*, formerly the feminine of “*fox*”; now denotes a cunning and spiteful woman.

-ard, -art: *cow-ard, drunk-ard, slugg-ard, dot-ard; bragg-art*. (This implies excess. Borrowed through French, but of Teutonic source.)

-nd (*old ending of present participle*): *fie-nd, frie-nd, erra-nd, wi-nd*.

-ter, -ther, -der: *daugh-ter, fa-ther, mo-ther, spi-der (spin-der), ru(d)-der (from row)*.

456. Abstract Nouns, marking *state, action, condition*.

-dom: *wis-dom, king-dom, free-dom, martyr-dom, serf-dom*.

-hood, -head: *god-head; man-hood, child-hood, neighbour-hood, mother-hood, widow-hood*.

- ric : *bishop-ric*. (This denotes jurisdiction.)
- ledge, -lock : *know-ledge*, *wed-lock*.
- ing : *learn-ing*, *writ-ing*, *walk-ing*. (Gerundial Suffix.)
- ter : *laugh-ter*, *slaugh-ter* (from *slay*).
- ness : *good-ness*, *holi-ness*, *wit-ness* (from *wis* or *wit*).
- red : *hat-red*, *kind-red*.
- ship, -scape : *friend-ship*, *lord-ship*, *wor-ship*; *land-scape*.
- th : *heat-th*, *steal-th*, *bread-th*, *dep-th*, *wid-th*, *tru-th*, *leng-th*.
- t, or -d : *heigh-t*, *sight*; *dee-d* (from *do*), *cu-d* (from *chew*).

457. Diminutives :—

- en, -on : *chick-en* (from *cock*), *kitt-en* (from *cat*), *maid-en*, *beac-on* (from *beck*), *wag-on*.
- ing : *farth-ing*, *tith-ing*, *shill-ing*, *whit-ing*, *wild-ing*.
- ling : *duck-ling*, *gos-ling*, *dar-ling*, *strip-ling*, *suck-ling*, *seed-ling*, *under-ling*, *hire-ling*. (Endearment, or contempt.)
- kin : *lamb-kin*, *fir-kin*, *Peter-kin* or *Per-kin*, *nap-kin*.
- ock : *hill-ock*, *bull-ock*, *padd-ock* (from *park*),
- ie, -y : *bird-ie*, *lass-ie*, *bab-y*, *dadd-y*, *Will-ie*, *Ann-ie*, *mann-i-kin*, *lamb-i-kin*. (Endearment.) The last two are double diminutives.
- el, -le : *sack*, *satch-el*; *corn*, *kern-el*; *scythe*, *sick-le*; *nave*, *nav-el*; *spark*, *spark-le*; *speck*, *speck-le*; *freak*, *freck-le*.

Note.—In the following words these suffixes denote the means or result of some action :—*shov-el*, *gird-le*, *spind-le* from spin, *shutt-le* from shoot, *hand-le*, *thimb-le* from thumb, *sadd-le* from sit, *sett-le* from sit or set, *bund-le* from bind.

458. Adjectives.

- ed (*like*, *having*) : *wretch-ed*, *letter-ed*, *land-ed*, *gift-ed*, *ragg-ed*.
- en (*made of*) : *wood-en*, *braz-en*, *earth-en*, *silk-en*, *wax-en*.
- ful (*full of*) : *fear-ful*, *play-ful*, *hope-ful*, *wil-ful*, *truth-ful*.
- ish (*somewhat like*) : *girl-ish*, *whit-ish*, *self-ish*, *brut-ish*, *snobb-ish*, *wolf-ish*, *pal-ish*, *snapp-ish*. (This suffix often implies contempt.)
- ish (*nationality*) : *Engl-ish*, *Span-ish*, *Turk-ish*.
- ly (*like*) : *god-ly*, *love-ly*, *king-ly*, *sick-ly*, *kind-ly*, *friend-ly*.
- like : *god-like*, *war-like*, *lady-like*, *business-like*.
- less (*without*) : *shame-less*, *house-less*, *hope-less*, *cease-less*, *sleep-less*, *cause-less*, *resist-less*, *worth-less*.
- y (*pertaining to*, *abounding in*) : *hill-y*, *storm-y*, *bush-y*, *rock-y*, *wooll-y*, *smok-y*, *wood-y*, *trust-y*, *feather-y*.
- some (*full of*, *inclined to*) : *game-some*, *win-some*, *burden-some*, *trouble-some*, *hand-some*, *frolic-some*, *quarrel-some*.
- ward (*turning to*) : *fro-ward*, *south-ward*, *down-ward*, *for-ward*, *way-ward*, *heaven-ward*, *home-ward*.
- teen, -ty (*ten*) : *nine-teen*, *twen-ty*, *thir-teen*, etc.
- th (*order*) : *six-th*, *seven-th*, etc.
- fold (*repeated*) : *two-fold*, *mani-fold*, *hundred-fold*.
- ern (*direction to*) : *east-ern*, *north-ern*, etc.

459. Adverbs.

- ly (*like*) : *god-ly*, *miser-ly*, *bad-ly*, on *ly*.
- long, -long (*-wise*, *-ways*) : *head-long*, *out-long*, *side-long*.

-meal (*division*) : piece-meal, inch-meal, limb-meal (Shaks.).
 -ward, -wards (*turning to*) : for-ward, up-wards, down-wards.
 N.B.—The adv. is usually formed by “wards”; the adj. by “ward.”
 -wise (*manner, mode*) : other-wise, no-wise, like-wise.
 -way, -ways : al-ways, straight-way, any-way, no-way.
 -s, -ce : need-s, twi-ce, beside-s, el-se, on-ce (sign of Possessive).
 -n : whé-n, thé-n-ce, he-n-ce. (There are two suffixes in *thence, hence.*)
 -om : sold-om, whil-om. (This was once a case-ending.)
 -re : whe-re, the-re, he-re.
 -ther : whi-ther, thi-ther, hi-ther.

Verbs.

460. **Frequentative** (sometimes in diminutive sense) :—
 -k : tal-k (from tell, but questioned by some), har-k, from hear.
 -le, -l : dubb-le, spark-le, start-le, knee-l, crack-le, shuff-le, cack-le, wrigg-le, pratt-le, dazz-le, draw-l, nipp-le, sniv-el (from sniff).
 -er : ling-er from long, flutt-er from flit, falt-er from fail, clamb-er from climb, shimm-er from shine, glitt-er from glint, sputt-er from spout, hank-er from hang, spatt-er from spot.
 -on, -om, m : bloss-on from blow, glea-m from glow, sea-m from sew, reck-on, blaz-on.

461. **Causative or Factitive** :—

-en : fatt-en, short-en, length-en, gladd-en, black-en, thick-en.

§ 2.—TEUTONIC PREFIXES.

462. **A- (on, in)** : a-bed, a-shore, a-sleep, a-way, a-stir.
A- (off up, from) : a-rise, a-wake, a-maze, a-light, a-rouse, a-new.
Intensive :—a-muse, a-weary, a-shamed, a-cursed.
Al- (all) : al-one, l-one, al-most, al-so, al-ready, al-together.
At- (to) : at-one, at-onement.
Be- (by) : (1) It forms Transitive verbs: be-calm, be-dew, be-friend, be-fit, be-dew, be-moan, be-numb, be-guile, be-fool, be-night.
 (2) It gives an intensive force to verbs: be-daub, be-smear, be-seech, be-get, be-stir, be-sprinkle, be-stow, be-take, be-deck.
 (3) It forms a part of some nouns, adverbs, and prepositions: be-half, be-quest, be-low, be-neath, be-sides, b-but, be-fore, be-tween (twain).

Note.—In the word “be-head” this “be” has a privative sense.
By- (on the side) : by-path, by-word, by-stander, by-election.
For- (through, thorough) : for-swear, for-get, for-bear, for-sake, for-bid.
Fore- (before) : fore-cast, fore-tell, fore-see, fore-head, fore-lock, fore-thought, fore-runner, fore-stall, fore-man, fore-ground, fore-leg.
Forth- : forth-coming, for-ward, forth-with.
Gain- (against) : gain-say (speak or say against).
In- : in-to, in-sight, in-land, in-let, in-mate.
Mis- (wrongly) : mis-deed, mis-lead, mis-take, mis-judge, mis-lay.
N- (negative) : n-one, n-either, n-ever, n-or.
On- : on-set, on-slaught.
Out- : out-east, out-side, out-landish, out-look, out-come, out-let, out-break, out-post, out-house, out-cry.

It makes Intransitive verbs Transitive: *out-live* (=live beyond), *out-run* (=run ahead of), *out-shine* (surpass in brightness), *out-vote* (=defeat by votes), *out-weigh*.

Over- (*above, beyond*): *over-eat*, *over-flow*, *over-hear*, *over-coat*, *over-charge*, *over-step*, *over-awe*, *over-look*.

To- (*to, for*): *to-day*, *to-night*, *to-gether*, *to-ward*, *un-to-ward*, *to-morrow*.

Un- (*not*): *un-truth*, *un-real*, *un-wise*, *un-told*, *un-ripe*.

Un- (*back*): *un-bolt*, *un-tie*, *un-lock*, *un-twine*, *un-do*.

Note.—In the word “*un-loose*,” the “*un*” is merely intensive.

Under: *under-go*, *under-stand*, *under-hand*, *under-ling*, *under-neath*, *under-mine*, *under-sell*, *under-take*.

Up: *up-right*, *up-ward*, *up-on*, *up-lands*, *up-hold*, *up-shot*.

Well- (*in good state*): *well-fare*, *well-come*.

With- (*against, back*): *with-draw*, *with-hold*, *with-stand*.

§ 3.—LATIN AND FRENCH SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

463. *Agent* :—

-ain, -en, -an: *captain*, *chieftain*, *guardian*, *citizen*, *librarian*, *ary, -ar, -aire*: *dignitary*, *missionary*, *secretary*; *vicar*, *schoolar*; *millionaire*, *doctrinaire*.

-ee, -y: *trustee*, *devotee*, *payee*; *deputy*, *jur-y*, *lev-y*, *attorney*.

Note.—These words have a *Passive* signification. Thus “*trustee*” means one who is trusted; “*jur-y*” means one who is sworn. But there is no *Passive* meaning in the words “*absentee*” (one who is absent), “*refugee*” (one who has taken refuge).

-eer, -ier: *engineer*, *auctioneer*, *volunteer*, *soldier*, *financialier*.

-our, -eur, -or, -er: *saviour*, *emperor*, *governor*, *preacher*, *robber*, *actor*, *doctor*, *monitor*, *censor*, *ancestor*, *amateur*.

-trix (fem.): *executive*, *testatrix*, *prosecutrix*.

-ess (fem.): *songstress*, *poetess*, *tigress*, *lioness*.

-ive, -iff: *captivate*, *fugitive*, *native*; *plaintiff*, *caitiff*.

-ant, -ent: *merchant*, *servant*; *student*, *president*, *patient*.

-ate, -ite, -it: *candidate*, *advocate*, *Israelite*, *Jesus*.

464. *Abstract Nouns* :—

-age: *bondage*, *courage*, *homage*, *marriage*, *pilgrimage*.

Cost of action: *postage*, *freightage*, *brokerage*, *haltage*.

Result of action: *breakage*, *leakage*, *message*, *pillage*.

-ance, -ence: *disturbance*, *endurance*, *repentance*; *obedience*, *innocence*, *absence*, *presence*, *dependence*, *diligence*, *patience*.

-ancy, -ency: *constancy*, *brilliance*, *tenacity*; *excellency*, *regularency*, *frequency*, *insolvency*, *emergency*, *innocency*.

-ess, -ice, -ise: *service*, *large*, *riches*, *prosperity*, *merchandise*, *exercise*, *justice*, *practic*, *courage*, *avarice*, *notice*.

-tion, -son, -som: *benediction*, *benison*; *portion*, *possession*; *redemption*, *ransom*; *oration*, *oasis*; *tradition*, *treason*.

-sion: *conversion*, *cohesion*, *assassination*, *compulsion*, *prosecution*, *illusion*, *manslaughter*, *collision*, *confusion*, *admission*.

-lence : pesti-lence, vio-lence, viru-lence, turbu-lence, opu-lence.
 -ment : conceal-ment, enchant-ment, nourish-ment, nutri-ment.
 -mony : cere-mony, acri-mony, matri-mony, testi-mony.
 -our, -or : fav-our, hon-our, err-or, langu-or, col-our.
 -eur : grand-eur, liqu-eur. (The last is not an abstract noun.)
 -ry, -ery : chival-ry, poet-ry; slav-ery, treach-ery, cook-ery.
 -tude : longi-tude, apti-tude, alti-tude, multi-tude, servi-tude.
 -ure : creat-ure, verd-ure, meas-ure, vest-ure, seiz-ure, agricult-ure.
 -y : harmon-y, stud-y, victor-y, miser-y, industr-y, env-y.
 -ity, -ty : fals-ity, real-ity; cruel-ty, frail-ty, boun-ty, un-ity.
 -al, -als : refus-al, propos-al, tri-al, nupti-als, credent-ials.
 -acy : priv-acy, accur-acy, intric-acy, obstin-acy, intim-acy.

465. Collectives; Nouns of Place :—

-ery, -ry : machin-ery, caval-ry, jewel-ry, gent-ry, tenant-ry, infant-ry, station-ry, shrubb-ery, bak-ery, cemet-ery, spic-ery, rock-ery.
 -ary, arium : libr-ary, gran-ary, semin-ary, sanctu-ary, gloss-ary, diction-ary; sanit-arium, aqu-arium.
 -ory : fact-ory, dormit-ory, arm-ory, territ-ory, observat-ory.
 -age : assembl-age, plum-age, foli-age, vill-age, hermit-age, cott-age
 -ade : colonn-ade, balustr-ade, cavalc-ade, brig-ade, crus-ade.

466. Diminutives :—

-aster : poet-aster, ole-aster.
 -el, -le : dams-el, cast-le, mod-el, citad-el, mors-el, pare-el.
 -icle, -cule : art-icle, part-icle, animal-cule, curr-icle, curr-iculum, cut-icle, corpus-cle, pinna-cle, cod-icil, domi-cile.
 -ule : glob-ule, pill-ule, nod-ule, caps-ule.
 -et, -let : lock-et, lanc-et, pock-et, tick-et, turr-et, coron-et, thick-et; brace-et, stream-et, brook-et, leaf-et, rivu-et, ring-et, root-et.
 -ot : fagg-ot, chari-ot, parr-ot, magg-ot, ball-ot, piv-ot.
 -ette : etiqu-ette, statu-ette, cigar-ette, waggon-ette, brun-ette.

467. Adjectives.

-al : loy-al, leg-al, roy-al, reg-al, equ-al, mort-al, vit-al.
 -an, -ane, -ain : hum-an, hum-ane; cert-ain; pag-an, Rom-an.
 -ar : sol-ar, lun-ar, regul-ar, singul-ar, vulg-ar, vernacul-ar.
 -ant, -ent : vac-ant, indign-ant, ramp-ant, pati-ent, innoc-ent, curr-ent, confid-ent, tru-ant, vagr-ant.
 -ary, -arious, -arian : contr-ary, ordin-ary, necess-ary, tempor-ary, on-ary; nef-arious, greg-arious; agr-arian, humanit-arian.
 -ate : fortun-ate, separ-ate, desol-ate, priv-ate, accur-ate.
 -ble : sta-ble, fee-ble, terri-ble; mov-able, laugh-able, eat-able, -ible, service-able, lov-able, drink-able. (Generally in a *Passive* sense.)
 -ese : Chin-ese, Malt-ese, Burm-ese, Siam-ese, Portugu-ese, Geno-ese.
 -ile : serv-ile, frag-ile, doc-ile, puer-ile, fac-ile, juven-ile.
 -eel, -il, -le : gent-eel, gent-le, civ-il, fra-il, cru-el, subt-le.
 -ine : div-ine, infant-ine, leon-ine, can-ine, clandest-ine.
 -ian : Austral-ian, Ind-ian, Christ-ian.
 -ive : act-ive, capt-ive, sport-ive, relat-ive, nat-ive, posit-ive.

- ose, -ous: verb-ose, joc-ose; monstr-ous, danger-ous, glori-ous, ponder-ous, dexter-ous, courte-ous.
- ory, -orious: compul-ory, transit-ory, curs-ory, dilat-ory; lab-nivous, cens-orious. (Generally in an *Active* sense.)
- ble, -ple: dou-ble, tre-ble; sim-ple, tri-ple.
- ic, -ique: publ-ic, rust-ic; un-iique, obl-iique, ant-iique.
- lent: pesti-lent, vio-lent, turbu-lent, fraudu-lent, corpu-lent.
- fic: terri-fic, horri-fic, beati-fic, sopori-fic, honori-fic. (Active sense.)
- escent: conval-escent, efferv-escent, incand-escent.
- aneous: simult-aneous, instant-aneous, contempor-aneous.
- erious: deleterious.
- id: ac-id, pall-id, squal-id, rig-id, plac-id, morb-id.
- ite: oppos-ite, favour-ite, Vishnu-ite, exquis-ite.
- ete, eet: compl-ete, obsol-ete, discr-ete, discr-eet.
- cund, -bund, -bond: rubi-cund, mori-bund, vaga-bond.

468. Verbs.

- ate: agit-ate, captiv-ate, moder-ate, stimul-ate, cre-ate.
- ish: fin-ish, nour-ish, pun-ish, publ-ish, van-ish.
- fy: magni-fy, signi-fy, simpli-fy, modifi-y, terrif-y. (Transitive.)
- ite, -it: exped-ite, cred-it, mer-it, inhab-it.
- esce: efferv-esce, coal-esce. (Denotes growing or becoming.)

§ 4.—GREEK SUFFIXES.

Nouns.

469. Agent:—

- ot: patri-ot, zeal-ot, idi-ot (big-ot, doubtful).
- ist: dent-ist, the-ist, egot-ist, alarm-ist, extrem-ist, optim-ist.
- ast: enthusi-ast, iconocl-ast.
- ic: heret-ic, scept-ic, crit-ic, cler-ic (=clerk).

470. Abstract Nouns:—

- ic, -ics: log-ic, mag-ic, mus-ic; eth-ics, mathemat-ics, polit-ics.
- ism: patriot-ism, barbar-ism, magnet-ism, the-ism, critic-ism.
- asm: enthusi-asm, pleon-asm, sarc-asm, ch-asm.
- sis, -sy, -se: drop-sy, pal-sy; paraly-sis, ba-sis; eclip-se, ellip-se.
- y: monarch-y, philosoph-y, democrac-y, energ-y.

471. Diminutives:—

- isk: aster-isk, obel-isk, basil-isk.

472. Adjectives.

- ic: dramat-ic, cosm-ic, com-ic, trag-ic, polit-ic.
- istic, -astic: eulog-istic, pleon-astic, sarc-astic.

473. Verbs.

- ise: civil-ise, scrutin-ise, fertil-ise, real-ise, theor-ise.

§ 5.—LATIN AND FRENCH PREFIXES.

- 474 A. ab, abs- (*away from*): ab-hor, ab-use, ab-surd, ab-nor-mal, ab-tract, abs-ent, abs-cond, abs-tain; a-vert, a-void.

Ad- (to): By assimilation *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *ar-*, *as-*, *at-*, *ad-vice*, *ad-join*, *ad-monish*, *ad-ore*, *ad-here*, *ad-opt*, *ac-custom*, *ac-cept*, *ac-cede*, *ac-cent*, *ac-cuse*, *ac-quire*, *ac-cord*, *ac-cumulate*, *ac-complish*.

af-flict, *af-fix*, *af-fection*, *af-filiate*, *af-fable*, *af-firm*.
ag-grieve, *ag-gravate*, *ag-gregate*, *ag-gressor*, *ag-grandise*.
al-lege, *al-lot*, *al-lure*, *al-low*, *al-lay*, *al-leviate*.
an-nounce, *an-nex*, *an-noy*, *an-nul*, *an-nihilate*.
ap-proach, *ap-pear*, *ap-peal*, *ap-point*, *ap-pease*, *ap-pal*.
ar-rive, *ar-rears*, *ar-rest*, *ar-rogant*, *ar-ray*, *ar-range*.
as-sent, *as-sert*, *as-sume*, *as-certain*, *as-sail*, *as-sets*.
at-tend, *at-tain*, *at-tract*, *at-tach*, *at-tempt*, *at-tack*.
a-spect, *a-scribe*, *a-spire*: (here the *d* has been lost).

Ambi-, amb-, am- (around): *ambi-dexterous*, *amb-i-tion*, *am-pu-tate*.

Ante-, anti- (before): *ante-chamber*, *ante-cedent*, *anti-cipate*.

Bene- (well): *bene-fit*, *benevolent*, *bene-diction*, hence *ben-i-sion*.

Bi-, bis-, bin-: *bi-ped*, *bis-cuit*, *bi-sect*, *bi-ennial*, *bin-ocular*.

Circum-, circu- (around): *circum-ference*, *circu-it*, *circum-stance*.

Com-, con-, co- (with): by assimilation, *col*, *cor*, *cog*, etc.

Com-pete, *com-bat*, *com-merce*, *com-pact*, *com-mand*.

Con-tend, *con-trive*, *con-flict*, *con-cur*, *con-fluence*.

Co-alesce, *co-heir*, *co-habit*, *co-ternal*, *co-exist*.

Col-lapse, *col-lege*, *col-lect*, *col-league*, *col-lision*.

Cor-rupt, *cor-rect*, *cor-rode*, *cor-respond*, *cor-roborate*.

Cog-nate, *cog-nizance*, *cog-nition*.

Coun-sel, *coun-cil*, *coun-tenance*.

Contra-, contro-, counter- (against): *contra-dict*, *counter-act*, *contra-st*, *contra-versy*, *counter-feit*, *counter-part*, *counter-sign*.

De- (down): *de-part*, *de-scend*, *de-form*, *de-ter*, *de-merit*.

„ (reversal): *de-bark*, *de-camp*, *de-throne*, *de-tach*.

Dis-, di-, dif- (asunder, not): *dis-honour*, *dis-please*, *dis-sever*, *dis-locate*, *dis-like*; *di-verse*, *di-minish*, *di-gest*; *dif-fer*, *dif-ficult*.

Dis- (reversal): *dis-close*, *dis-mount*, *dis-arm*, *dis-appear*, *dis-continue*.

Ex-, e-, ef- (out of, from): *ex-alt*, *e-lect*, *ex-pel*, *ex-amine*, *e-ducate*; *ef-fort*, *ef-fulgence*, *ef-fervesce*; *ex-king*, dethroned king.

Extra- (beyond): *extra-ordinary*, *extra-work*, *stra-nger*.

In-, en-, em- (in, into, on): *in-vert*, *in-vade*, *im-pose*, *im-press*, *im-pute*, *il-lusion*, *ir-ruption*, *ir-rigate*, *en-tice*, *em-ploy*, *em-brace*, *em-bark*, *em-barrass*. *In-close* or *en-close*, *in-dorse* or *en-dorse*, *in-quire* or *en-quire*, *in-trust* or *en-trust*, *in-twine* or *en-twine*, *in-circle* or *en-circle*, *im-bitter* or *em-bitter*.

Note.—This prefix, placed before a noun or adjective, makes a Transitive verb:—*en-dear*, *en-rich*, *en-large*, *en-slave*, *en-title*, *em-body*, *im-peril*, *en-danger*.

In- (not): *in-firm*, *in-fant* (not speaking), *ig-noble*, *il-legal*, *im-pious*, *ir-regular*, *ir-rational*, *ig-nominy*, *il-literate*, *im-passive*.

Note.—The Latin “*in*” and the English “*un*” are so much alike, that some words are spelt both ways:—*in-frequent* or *un-frequent*, *in-cautious* or *un-cautious*, *in-stable* or *un-stable*.

Inter-, intro-, enter- (within): *inter-course*, *inter-preter*, *inter-*

ceipt, *inter*-pose; *intro*-duce, *intro*-spection, *enter*-tain, *enter*-prise, *intel*-lect.

Juxta- (*near*) : *juxta*-position.

Male-, **mal-** (*ill, badly*) : *male*-factor ; *mal*-treat, *mal*-ignant.

Mis- (*from Lat. minus, less*) : *mis*-chief, *mis*-fortune, *mis*-conduct, *mis*-named, *mis*-use, *mis*-calculate.

Ne-, neg- : *ne*-farious, *neg*-lect, *neg*-ative.

Non- (*not*) : *non*-sense, *non*-existent, *non*-age, *non*-compliance.

Note.—“*Non*” is much less emphatic than “*in*” or “*un*”. Compare “*non-christian*” and “*un-christian*”; “*non-professional*” and “*un-professional*”; etc.

Ob- (*in front of, against*) : *ob*-ject, *ob*-stinate, *ob*-cupy, *ob*-casional, *ob*-fer, *ob*-fend, *op*-pose, *op*-press.

Per-, pel- (*through*) : *per*-force, *per*-spire, *per*-form, *pel*-lucid.

Pene- (*almost*) : *pene*-insula, *pene*-ultimate.

Post- (*after*) : *post*-date, *post*-script, *post*-pone, *post*-humous.

Pre- (*before*) : *pre*-dict, *pre*-caution, *pre*-pare, *pre*-judice.

Preter- (*beyond*) : *preter*-natural, *preter*-ite.

Pro-, por-, pol-, pur- (*forth*) : *pro*-ject, *pro*-pose, *pro*-noun, *pro*-mise, *por*-tend, *pol*-lute, *pur*-pose, *pur*-sue, *pur*-port, *pur*-loin.

Re-, red- (*back, again*) : *re*-join, *re*-act, *re*-new ; *red*-eem, *red*-ound, *red*-undant.

Note.—The insertion of a hyphen alters the meaning. Compare “recover” and “re-cover”; “rejoin” and “re-join”; “redress” and “re-dress”; “reform” and “re-form”; “recollect” and “re-collect”; “recount” and “re-count”; “return” and “re-turn.”

Retro- (*backward*) : *retro*-spect, *retro*-grade, *retro*-cession.

Se-, sed- (*apart*) : *se*-clude, *se*-parate, *sed*-ition, *se*-cret, *se*-cure.

Semi-, demi- (*half*) : *semi*-circle ; *demi*-god, *demi*-official.

Sine- (*without*) : *sine*-cure.

Sub- (*under*) : *sub*-ject, *sub*-cour, *sub*-cess, *sub*-fer, *sub*-fice, *sub*-gest, *sub*-committee, *sub*-tain, *sub*-pend, *sub*-port, *sub*-reptitious.

Note.—In words like “*sub-tropical*” the “*sub*” means “rather.” In words like “*sub-judge*” the “*sub*” denotes an officer of lower rank. In *sub*-marine (*under the sea*) the *sub* is prepositional.

Super-, sur- (*above, over, beyond*) : *super*-structure, *super*-ficial ; *sur*-face, *sur*-pass, *sur*-vive.

Subter- (*beneath*) : *subter*-fuge.

Trans-, tra- (*across*) : *trans*-figure, *trans*-gress, *trans*-form, *trans*-it, *trans*-mit, *trans*-late, *trans*-parent, *tra*-verse, *tra*-dition, *tra*-duce.

Tri- (*three*) : *tri*-angle, *tri*-lateral, *tri*-nity.

Ultra- (*beyond*) : *ultra*-liberal, *ultra*-marine.

Vice-, vis- (*instead of*) : *vice*-regent, *vis*-count, *vice*-roy.

Quasi- (*pretence*) : a *quasi*-judge (a sham or pretended judge).

Quondam- (*formerly*) : a *quondam*-judge (a former judge).

475. Disguised Prefixes (Latin or French).

Ante- (*before*) : *an*-cestor for *ante*-cessor.

Bi- (*twice*) : *bi*-lance.

Con-, co- (*together*) : *cus*-tom, *cur*-ry (verb), *co*-ver, *co*-venant, *co*-unt (verb and noun), *cou*-ch, *co*-st.

Dis-, di- (*apart*) : *des*-cant, *des*-patch (or *dis*-patch), *de*-feat, *de*-luge.

Far, e- (*out*) : *a*-mend (but *e*-mendation), *a*-bash, *a*-fraid, *a*-ward, *as*-tenish, *es*-cape, *es*-cheat, *es*-say, *is*-sue, *s*-ample, *s*-carce, *s*-corch.
Extra- (*outside*) : *stra*-nge, *stra*-nger.
Enter- (*within*) : *entr*-ails.
In- (*not*) : *en*-emy (hence adj. *in*-imical).
Juxta- (*near*) : *joust*.
Non- (*not*) : *un*-pire (old French, *nom*-per).
Per- (*through*) : *par*-don, *par*-amount, *par*-son, *pi*-grim.
Post- (*after*) : *pu*-ny.
Pre- (*before*) : *pre*-ach, *pro*-vost.
Re- (*back*) : *ren*-der, *r*-ansom, *r*-ally.
Retro- (*back*) : *rear*-guard.
Sub- (*under*) : *so*-journ, *sud*-den, *s*-ombre.
Super- (*above*) : *sopr*-ano, *sover*-eign (older spelling, *sovr*-an).
Trans- (*across*) : *tres*-pass, *tre*-ason, *tra*-ffic.
Ultra- (*beyond*) : *out*-rage.

§ 6.—GREEK PREFIXES.

476. **Amphi-** (*about, on both sides*) : *amphi*-theatre, *amphi*-bious.
An-, am-, a- (*not, without*; like English *un*-) : *an*-archy, *a*-theism, *a*-pathy, *am*-brosial, *a*-trophy, *an*-omalous.
Ana-, an- (*up to, again*) : *ana*-tomy, *ana*-logy, *ana*-lysis, *ana*-urism.
Anti-, ant- (*against*) : *anti*-podes, *anti*-pathy ; *anti*-agonist.
Apo-, aph- (*from*) : *apo*-logy, *apo*-state, *apo*-strophe, *aph*-orism.
Arch-, archi- (*chief, head*) : *arch*-heretic, *arch*-enemy ; *archi*-tect.
Auto-, auth- (*self*) : *auto*-graph, *auto*-biography ; *auth*-entic.
Cata-, cath-, cat- (*down*) : *cata*-ract, *cath*-edral, *cata*-strophe, *cata*-echism.
Dia- (*through*) : *dia*-meter, *dia*-logue, *dia*-dem, *dia*-gonal.
Di- (*in two*) : *di*-syllable, *di*-phthong, *di*-lemma.
Dys- (*ill*) : *dys*-peptic, *dys*-entery.
Ec-, ex- (*out, from*) : *ex*-odus ; *ec*-centric, *ec*-lipse, *ec*-logue.
En- (*in*) : *en*-thusiasm, *en*-phasis, *el*-lipsis, *en*-comium.
Eu-, ev- (*well*) : *eu*-phony, *eu*-phemism, *ev*-angelist.
Epi-, eph-, ep- (*upon*) : *epi*-gram, *ep*-och, *epi*-taph, *eph*-emeral, *epi*-stle.
Endo- (*within*) : *endo*-gamous, *endo*-genous.
Exo- (*without*) : *exo*-gamous, *exo*-tic.
Hemi- (*half*) : *hemi*-sphere.
Hepta-, hept- (*seven*) : *hepta*-gon, *hept*-archy.
Hetero- (*different*) : *hetero*-aux, *hetero*-geneous.
Hex- (*six*) : *hex*-a-meter, *hex*-a-gon.
Homo-, hom- (*same*) : *homo*-geneous, *hom*-onym.
Hyper- (*above*) : *hyper*-bole, *hyper*-critical.
Hypo-, hyph- (*under*) : *hypo*-crite, *hypo*-thesis, *hyp*-hen.
Meta-, meth-, met- (*after, substitution*) : *meta*-phor, *meth*-od, *met*-onymy.
Mono-, mon- (*single, alone*) : *mono*-graph, *mon*-archy, *mon*-astery, *mon*-k.
Pan-, panto- (*all*) : *pan*-theist, *pan*-oply, *pan*-orama, *panto*-mine.
Para-, par- (*beside*) : *para*-phrase, *para*-ble, *para*-llel, *para*-site

Penta- (*five*) : *penta-meter*, *penta-polis*.

Peri- (*around*) : *peri-meter*, *peri-phrase*, *peri-od*.

Poly- (*many*) : *poly-syllable*, *poly-theist*, *poly-glot*.

Pro- (*before*) : *pro-gramme*, *pro-logue*, *pro-phet*, *pro-boscis*.

Pseudo-, pseud- (*false*) : *pseudo-critic*, *pseud-onym*.

Syn- (*with*) : *syn-thesis*, *syn-tax*, *syn-pathy*, *syl-lable*, *sys-tem*.

Tele- (*afar*) : *tele-graph*, *tele-phone*, *tele-gram*.

Tri- (*thrice, or three*) : *tri-pod*, *tri-syllable*, *tri-sect*.

477. Some General Results.

(a) List of Prefixes and Suffixes denoting the possession of some quality in a moderate degree :—

-ish, Teutonic suffix : *black-ish* (rather black), *sweet-ish* (rather sweet).

-ly, Teutonic suffix : *clean-ly* (disposed to be clean), *sick-ly* (liable to be sick at times).

Sub-, Latin prefix : *sub-acid* (rather acid), *sub-tropical* (almost or slightly tropical).

(b) List of Prefixes signifying the reversal or undoing of something done :—

Un-, Teutonic prefix : *un-bolt*, *un-tie*, *un-lock*, *un-fold*.

Dis-, or di-, Latin prefix : *dis-mount*, *dis-appear*, *dis-arm*.

De-, Latin prefix : *de-throne*, *de-camp*, *de-tach*.

(c) List of Prefixes and Suffixes denoting a negative :—

Un-, Teutonic prefix : *un-happy*, *un-safe*, *un-ready*.

-less, Teutonic suffix : *hap-less*, *law-less*, *hope-less*.

N-, Teutonic prefix : *n-one*, *n-ever*, *n-either*, *n-or*.

For-, Teutonic prefix : *for-bid*.

Dis-, di-, Latin prefix : *dis-quiet* (opposite to quiet), *dis-ficult* (not easy), *dis-fident* (not confident), *dis-honour*.

In-, Latin prefix : *in-human*, *ir-regular*, *im-moral*, *il-legible*.

Ne-, neg-, non-, Latin prefix : *ne-farious*, *neg-lect*, *non-sense*.

A-, or an-, Greek prefix : *a-pathy*, *an-archy*, *an-brosial*.

(d) List of Suffixes indicating the Feminine gender :—

-ster, Teutonic suffix : *spin-ster*.

-en, Teutonic suffix : *vix-en*.

-ess, French suffix : *lion-ess*, *tempr-ess*, *tigr-ess*.

(e) List of Prefixes indicating something bad :—

Mis-, Teutonic prefix (from *miss*) : *mis-take*, *mis-deed*, *mis-hap*.

Male-, mal-, Latin prefix : *male-factor*, *mal-treat*.

Mis-, Latin prefix (from *minus*) : *mis-use*, *mis-fortune*.

Dys-, Greek prefix : *dys-entery*, *dys-pepsia*.

(f) List of Prefixes indicating something good :—

Well-, Teutonic prefix : *wel-fare*, *wel-come*, *well-being*.

Bene-, Latin prefix : *bene-volent*, *bene-fit*, *bene-diction*.

Eu-, Greek prefix : *eu-phemism*, *eu-angelist*, *eu-phony*.

(g) List of Prefixes and Suffixes by which Transitive verbs can be formed from an adjective or noun:—

Be-, Teutonic prefix: *be-friend*, *be-calm*, *be-moan*, *be-little*.
 en-, Teutonic suffix: *dark-en*, *length-en*, *hast-en*, *lik-en*.
 In-, en-, Latin and French prefixes: *in-peril*, *en-dear*, *en-* or *im-* bitter.
 -fy, Latin suffix: *magnify*, *modi-fy*, *stupe-fy*.
 -ise or -ize, Greek suffix: *human-ise*, *brutal-ise*, *galvan-ise*.

478. Latin and Greek equivalent Prefixes.

<i>Latin.</i>	<i>Greek.</i>	<i>Meaning.</i>
Ambi- , <i>amb-iguous</i>	Amphi- , <i>amphi-bious</i>	On both sides
Ab- , <i>ab-solute</i>	Apo- , <i>apo-logy</i>	From
Ex- , <i>ex-amine</i>	Ec- , <i>ec-stacy</i>	Out of
In- , <i>in-spection</i>	En-, Em- , <i>em-phasis</i>	Into
Semi- , <i>demi-</i> , <i>demi-god</i>	Hemi- , <i>hemi-sphere</i>	Half
Super- , <i>super-vise</i>	Hyper- , <i>hyper-bole</i>	Above
Sub- , <i>sub-stantive</i>	Hypo- , <i>hypo-thesis</i>	Under
Pro- , <i>pro-portion</i>	Pro- , <i>pro-phet</i>	Before or for
Tri- , <i>tri-angle</i>	Tri- , <i>tri-pod</i>	Thrice

I. Show the difference of meaning in each of the following pairs of abstract words formed with different suffixes:—

(a) *Teutonic suffixes* :—

Dearth, dearness. Drought, dryness. Sloth, slowness. Sleight, slyness. Truth, trueness. Hardness, hardihood. Witness, wisdom.

(b) *Latin suffixes* :—

(1) Impress-ment, impress-ion ; (2) content-ment, content-ion ; (3) degener-ation, degener-ac-y ; (4) creat-ure, creat-ion ; (5) post-ure, position ; (6) eject-ment, eject-ion ; (7) stat-ure, stat-ion ; (8) impost-ure, imposition ; (9) fract-ure, fract-ion, frag-ment ; (10) serv-i-tude, serv-ice ; (11) intim-ation, intim-ac-y ; (12) acquitt-ance, acquitt-al ; (13) depart-ment, depart-ure ; (14) appar-it-ion, appear-ance ; (15) fixt-ure, fix-ity ; (16) compos-ure, composi-tion ; (17) admitt-ance, admis-sion ; (18) vac-ancy, vacation ; (19) expos-ure, exposi-tion ; (20) dis-posal, disposi-tion ; (21) observ-ance, observa-tion ; (22) committ-al, commiss-ion ; (23) benefact-ion, benefic-ence ; (24) continu-ance, continua-tion ; (25) propos-al, proposi-tion ; (26) signific-ance, signific-a-tion ; (27) destin-y, destinat-ion.

(c) *Latin and Teutonic suffixes* :—

(1) Exact-ness, exact-ion ; (2) appropriate-ness, appropriati-on ; (3) apt-ness, apt-i-tude ; (4) lax-ity, lax-ness ; (5) pall-or, pale-ness ; (6) human-ity, humane-ness ; (7) secure-ness, secur-ity ; (8) remiss-ness, remiss-ion ; (9) quiet-ude, quiet-ness ; (10) close-ness, clos-ure ; (11) direct-ion, direct-ness ; (12) just-ness, just-ice ; (13) till-age, til-th ; (14) proceed-ure, proceed-ing ; (15) complete-ness, completi-on ; (16) distinct-ness, distinct-ion ; (17) false-hood, falsi-ty.

(d) *Greek and Latin suffixes* :—

Fatal-ism, fatal-ity. Barbar-ism, barbar-ity. Vulgar-ism, vulgar-ity. Commun-ism, commun-ity. Formal-ism, formal-ity.

II. *Give the difference of meaning, if any, in each of the following pairs of adjectives formed with different suffixes* :—

(1) Temporal, temporary ; (2) industrial, industrious ; (3) virtual, virtuous ; (4) official, officious ; (5) sensual, sensuous ; (6) continual, continuous ; (7) popular, populous ; (8) verbal, verbose ; (9) momentary, momentous ; (10) innocent, innocuous ; (11) beneficial, beneficent ; (12) notable, notorious ; (13) ordinal, ordinary ; (14) elemental, elementary ; (15) sensitive, sensible ; (16) illusive, illusory ; (17) sanitary, sanitary ; (18) imperial, imperious.

III. *Substitute a single word (an adjective) for the words printed below in italics* :—

(a) This writing is *such as cannot be read*.
 (b) The plan you mention *cannot be put into practice*.
 (c) He is *one who cannot according to the rules be elected*.
 (d) That herb is *fit to be eaten*.
 (e) The colour is *beyond my perception*.
 (f) You are *liable to be called to account for your actions*.
 (g) The plan you propose is *open to objections*.
 (h) That word is *no longer in use*.
 (i) This is a bird *of passage*.
 (j) Your office is *one for which no salary is paid*.
 (k) His motive was merely *to get some money*.
 (l) His position was *beyond all hope of improvement*.
 (m) His manners are *more like those of a woman than of a man*.
 (n) He is *one who takes no trouble about his work*.
 (o) His style is *too full of words*.
 (p) He is *inclined to find fault*.
 (q) A wolf is an animal *that cannot be tamed*.
 (r) That problem is *one which is never likely to be solved*.
 (s) His character has *an evil reputation*.
 (t) The use of opium is *likely to do much injury*.

IV. *To each of the verbs, nouns, or adjectives given below, add the appropriate abstract suffix or suffixes* :—

Serve, coward, right, grand, err, miser, apt, victor, repent, acrid, just, merchant, trick, pass, seize, try, judge, compel, admit, regent, bankrupt, accurate, poor, rely, captive, fragile, facile, felon, sole, assist, scarce, secret, defy, pater (father), real.

V. *Form Diminutive nouns out of the following by adding to each of them its appropriate Diminutive suffix* :—

Animal, code, pouch, brook, poet, cigar, vase, lance, globe, mode, pill, bill, car, cellar, statue, part, song, sign, table, home, wag, hump, park, maid, cut, lamb, hill, change, bird, lad, scythe, corn, freak.

VI. Point out the six different senses of the suffix "age" as exemplified in the following words:—

Herbage, hermitage, courage, postage, breakage, personage.

VII. Describe the four uses of the suffix "en" as exemplified in the following words:—

Maiden, flaxen, vixen, fatten.

VIII. In the following sentences, the meaning of the word to which "re" has been prefixed depends upon whether a hyphen has or has not been placed between the prefix and the verbal root. Substitute some other verb or phrase in each sentence:—

- (1) { I have never remarked this before.
The box must be re-marked.
- (2) { My losses were soon recovered.
The tents must be re-covered.
- (3) { He has rejoined his post.
He has re-joined the two planks.
- (4) { Their wrongs were soon redressed.
The doll must be re-dressed.
- (5) { His character was reformed.
The classes were re-formed.
- (6) { I cannot recollect this.
You must re-collect all the coins that have been lost.
- (7) { I will not recount my sorrows.
You had better re-count all these rupees.
- (8) { You must return that book.
Having turned the verse into prose, he re-turned the prose into verse.
- (9) { This has been reserved for future use.
The summons, which he could not then receive, must be re-served upon him.
- (10) { A. went out of office and was replaced by B.
A. has been re-placed in his appointment.

IX. Define and distinguish the three meanings of the prefix "sub" in the following words:—

(a) Sub-terranean, sub-montane; (b) sub-acid, sub-tropical; (c) sub-judge, sub-deputy.

X. Show the difference of meaning implied in the following words by the prefix "non" and the prefix "in" or "un":—

(a) Non-active, inactive; (b) non-effective, ineffective; (c) non-Christian, unchristian; (d) non-famous, infamous; (e) non-professional, unprofessional.

XI. Form sentences showing the difference of meaning between:—

Confidant, confident; dependant, dependent.

CHAPTER XXVII.—HISTORICAL OUTLINE: LATIN AND GREEK ROOTS

479. The English used at the present day throughout the British Empire is based upon the language that was spoken by the Angle, Saxon, and Frisian invaders, who permanently occupied Britain from about 450 A.D.

This language has been called Anglo-Saxon or Old English. It was a branch of the Low German, as distinct from the High German spoken to this day in most parts of Germany.

The German or Teutonic stock belongs to the great family of languages known as Aryan or Indo-Germanic, to which Persian, Sanskrit, and many more also belong.

480. Notwithstanding the introduction of a great many new words borrowed from many different sources—Keltic, Danish, Latin, French, Greek, etc.—the grammatical framework of the language is still Teutonic or purely English, and not Latin.

All the inflections of nouns and verbs are Teutonic; all the pronouns; all the numerals; almost all the prepositions; almost all the conjunctions; all adjectives of irregular comparison; the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees; the auxiliary verbs; all verbs of the strong conjugation; many verbs of the weak conjugation; many of the prefixes and suffixes; all the adverbial suffixes; and most of the words that are in commonest use.

481. The stages of change through which the language has passed have been marked by the following periods:—

I. *Old English or Anglo-Saxon: A.D. 450-1066.*

In this period the foreign elements were very few, and the language was highly inflectional.

II. *Early English or semi-Saxon: A.D. 1066-1250.*

During this period, owing to the Norman Conquest, a few words of French or neo-Latin origin came into use, the spelling of many words was changed, and inflections became fewer.

III. *Middle English: A.D. 1250-1500.*

During this period most of the Anglo-Saxon inflections that still remained finally disappeared, and many Strong verbs were replaced by Weak ones.

IV. *Modern English: from A.D. 1500.*

This period is sometimes subdivided into two parts, the earlier of which is called Tudor English, extending from A.D. 1500 to about 1600.

482. Latin and French Words.—The bulk of our borrowed words are of Latin or neo-Latin (that is, French) origin. These came into the language at different times and in different ways, as shown below:—

(a) The first and smallest instalment came through the military occupation of Britain by the Romans, during the four centuries which preceded the invasion of Angles, Saxons, and Frisians.

To this period we owe the names of places ending in *chester*, as Manchester (from Latin *castrum*, a fortified camp); the word *street* (from *stratum*, a paved road); the word *wall* (from *vallum*, a rampart); *colony* (from Latin *colonia*, a military settlement).

(b) The second instalment came with the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, of which Latin was the sacred language.

To this period (A.D. 596-1066) we owe a great many ecclesiastical words; such as *alms*, *altar*, *apostle*, *epistle*, *bishop*, *chapter*, *candle*, *cloister*, *clerk*, *creed*, *cross*, *disciple*, *feast*, *monk*, *pagan*, *priest*, *saint*; and a great many more.

We also owe the names of many articles of foreign production, the use or knowledge of which the Roman missionaries brought into England with them:—*butter*, *cheese*, *pepper*, *cedar*, *chalk*, *crystal*, *elephant*, *elm*, *pig*, *laurel*, *lily*, *lion*, *marble*, *mule*, *oyster*, *palm*, *pearl*; and a great many more.

(c) The third and greatest instalment was the result of the Norman conquest. The Norman invaders brought with them shoals of words of Latin or neo-Latin origin, and it was through the violent friction of Norman-French with the indigenous English that most of the English inflexions were rubbed off and lost. By the year A.D. 1250 French and Latin words began to be numerous.

(d) The fourth instalment, from A.D. 1500, began with the revival of learning, by which a great many new words, relating to art, science, and classical literature generally, were introduced. The influx is still going on.

483. Greek Words.—These came in chiefly through the Latin: for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek during the most brilliant period of its history.

Greek words, however, are still being borrowed, and this directly from the Greek language itself, whenever we

require a new technical word to express some new fact or notion in art or science.

484. Hybrids.—As a general rule Teutonic prefixes or suffixes are added to Teutonic roots, Latin or French to Latin or French, and Greek to Greek.

But all these prefixes and suffixes have now become neutralised in English, and hence many Derivative words are of mixed origin. Such words are called **Hybrids** or **half-breeds**.

(a) In the following short list, which may serve as a specimen, the nouns, some of Teutonic and some of Latin origin, have been made adjectives by receiving the *Teutonic* or *Saxon* suffix “*ful*” and the *Latin* suffix “*ous*” :—

	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>
Wonder (<i>Teutonic</i>)		{ wondrous,—used chiefly in poetry. (<i>Hybrid.</i>) wonderful, — same meaning as “wondrous”
Plenty (<i>Latin</i>)		{ plenteous,—used chiefly in poetry plentiful,—same meaning as “plen- teous” beauteous, for persons; used in poetry beautiful,—for persons and things alike (<i>Hybrid.</i>)
Beauty (<i>neo-Latin</i>)		{ beauteous,—used chiefly in poetry beautiful,—for persons and things alike (<i>Hybrid.</i>)
Bounty (<i>Latin</i>)		{ bounteous,—used chiefly in poetry bountiful, — same meaning as “bounteous” (<i>Hybrid.</i>)
Pity (<i>Latin</i>)		{ piteous,—exciting pity, as “a pit- eous moan” pitiful,—{ exciting pity, as “a pitiful excuse” feeling pity, “as a pitifi- ful nature” (<i>Hybrid.</i>)
Grace (<i>Latin</i>)		{ gracious,—showing grace or favour, kind graceful,—elegant in form (<i>Hybrid.</i>)

(b) Teutonic roots with Latin or French prefixes :—

En-body, *en*-dear, *en*-snare, *de*-bar, *de*-file, *dis*-band, *dis*-burden,
per-haps, *demi*-god, *re*-call.

(c) Teutonic roots with Latin or French suffixes :—

Starv-ation, *stream*-let, *godd*-ess, *joy*-ous, *scrimm*-age, *drink*-able,
treach-ery, *block*-ade.

(d) Latin roots with Teutonic prefixes :—

Under-estimate, *over*-flow, *un*-deceive, *be*-siege, *a*-cross, *after*-piece,
fore-close.

(e) Latin roots with English suffixes :—

False-hood, priest-craft, quarrel-some, rapid-ly, merci-ful.

485. Teutonic and Latin words in pairs.—Words sometimes go in pairs, one being of English, the other of Latin origin. But there is generally a difference of meaning :—

Teutonic	Latin or French	Teutonic	Latin or French
Abode,	domicile	Eat,	consume
Answer,	respond	East,	orient
Ask,	inquire	Edge,	margin
Backbite,	calumniate	Embody,	incorporate
Begin,	commence	Empty,	vacant
Belief,	{ faith, persuasion	End,	conclusion
Bemoan,	deplore	Enlighten,	illuminate
Bent,	curved	Enough,	sufficient
Blunder,	error	Fall,	lapse
Boldness,	fortitude	Fat,	corpulent
Bright,	radiant	Fearful,	timid
Brow,	front	Feather,	plume
Build,	construct	Feel,	experience
Building,	edifice	Feeling,	consciousness
Burial,	funeral	Fellow-feeling,	sympathy
Bury,	inter	Feud,	quarrel
Calling,	vocation	Fewness,	paucity
Chaffer,	to bargain	Fight,	conflict
Choice,	selection	Finger,	digit
Clasp,	embrace	Fire,	flame
Clothes,	vesture	Fit,	adapted
Cold,	frigid	Fit,	convulsion
(Very) cold,	gelid	Flag,	pennant
Coming,	advent	Flaw,	defect
Cope with,	vie with	Flood,	deluge
Cunning,	astute	Flying,	fugitive
Dale or dell,	valley	Foe,	enemy
Damp.	humid	Food,	victuals
Dark,	obscure	Forerunner,	precursor
Deadly,	mortal	Foresight,	prudence
Death,	decease	Foreknowledge,	prescience
Deck,	adorn	Foretell,	predict
Deed,	act	Forgetful,	oblivious
Deem,	judge	Freedom,	liberty
Deep,	profound	Full,	replete
Die,	expire	Further,	ulterior
Doer,	agent	Gainsay,	contradict
Dread,	terror	Gather,	collect
Drill,	discipline	Get,	obtain
Drink,	imbibe	Ghost,	spirit
Drive,	impel	Gift,	present
Dwell,	reside	Gird,	encircle
		Go	proceed

<i>Teutonic</i>	<i>Latin or French.</i>	<i>Teutonic</i>	<i>Latin or French.</i>
Green,	verdant	Naked,	nude
Grow,	increase	Nearness,	proximity
Guard,	defend	Need,	necessity
Guess,	conjecture	Needy,	indigent
Guide,	direct	Niggard,	miser
Guilt,	criminality	Old,	ancient
Handbook,	manual	One,	unit
Handle,	manipulate	Outflowing,	efflux
Hang,	suspend	Outlive,	survive
Hap,	chance	Outward,	external
Happen,	eventuate	Play,	recreation
Harm,	injury	Plight,	condition
Haste,	celerity	Quake,	tremble
Hate,	detest	Quench,	extinguish
Hateful,	odious	Quick,	rapid
Heap,	mass	Quiver,	tremble
Help,	assistance	Rich,	opulent
Hide,	conceal	Ripe,	mature
High,	elevated	Rise,	origin, source
Hinder,	impede	Rooms,	apartments
Hopeless,	desperate	Rot,	putrefy
Horseman,	equestrian	Same,	identical
Hot,	ardent	Scatter,	disperse
Hunt,	chase	See,	perceive
Husband or wife,	spouse	Set free,	emancipate
Illness,	disease	Shake,	agitate
Ill-will,	malice	Shame,	disgrace
Inward,	internal	Share,	portion
Keen,	eager	Short,	brief
Keep,	maintain	Show,	evince, display
Last,	ultimate	Shy,	timid
Lasting,	durable	Sight,	spectacle
Laughter,	derision	Sin,	iniquity
Lean,	meagre	Skill,	art
Learned,	erudite	Skillful,	expert
Learner,	disciple	Slanting,	oblique
Lessen,	diminish	Slaughter,	carnage
Look,	appearance	Slack,	remiss
Looker-on,	spectator	Slip,	lapse
Loth,	reluctant	Slow,	tardy
Loving,	affectionate	Smell,	odour
Lowly,	humble	Snake,	serpent
Luck,	chance	Speech,	oration
Mad,	insane	Spread,	extend
Maiden,	virgin	Spring,	fountain
Mar,	damage	Step,	grade
Mate,	companion	Stick,	adhere
Meed,	recompense	Stif,	rigid
Meet,	suitable	Stir,	move
Mishap,	accident	Storm,	tempest
Mistrust,	diffidence	Stream,	current

<i>Teutonic</i>	<i>Latin or French.</i>	<i>Teutonic</i>	<i>Latin or French.</i>
Strengthen	confirm	Twist,	contort
Strife,	contention	Twofold,	double
Strive,	endeavour	Unearth,	disinter
Strong,	robust	Unfold,	disclose
Struggle,	effort	Unlikely,	improbable
Sweet,	fragrant	Wander,	stray
Swell,	dilate	Warlike,	martial
Swift,	rapid	Warm,	tepid
Swollen,	tumid	Warn,	admonish
Talk,	converse	Wary,	cautious
Teach,	instruct	Wash,	lave
Teachable,	docile	Wave,	undulate
Tell,	relate	Weakness,	debility
Thanks,	gratitude	Wedlock,	matrimony
Thick,	dense	Wet,	humid
Think,	imagine	Whole,	total
Threat,	menace	Wink,	connive
Threefold,	triple	Wise,	judicious
Thrift,	frugality	Wish,	desire
Tired,	fatigued	Withstand,	resist
Tool,	implement	Womanish,	effeminate
Top,	summit	Womanly,	feminine
Trade,	commerce	Wonder,	astonishment
Trick,	artifice	Wonderful,	stupendous
Trust,	confidence	Work,	operate
Truthfulness,	veracity	Yield,	submit

486. Latin adjectives to Teutonic nouns.—Some examples of these (together with the Latin roots) are given below:—

<i>Teutonic Noun.</i>	<i>Latin Adjective.</i>	<i>Latin Root.</i>	<i>Teutonic Noun.</i>	<i>Latin Adjective.</i>	<i>Latin Root.</i>
Cat	feline	<i>felis</i>	Moon	lunar	<i>luna</i>
Field	rural	<i>rus</i>	Mouth	oral	<i>os</i>
Cow	vaccine	<i>vacca</i>	Name	nominal	<i>nomen</i>
Dog	canine	<i>canis</i>	Nose	nasal	<i>nasus</i>
Ear	auricular	<i>auris</i>	Ox	bovine	<i>bos</i>
Egg	oval	<i>ovum</i>	Plot	local	<i>locus</i>
Eye	ocular	<i>oculus</i>	Sea	marine	<i>mare</i>
Fox	vulpine	<i>vulpes</i>	Son	filial	<i>filius</i>
Gospel	evangelical	<i>evangelium</i>	Daughter	{ filial	{ <i>filia</i>
Husband	marital	<i>maritus</i>	Sun	solar	<i>sol</i>
Head	capital	<i>caput</i>	Sheep	ovine	<i>ovis</i>
Hearing	audible	<i>audio</i>	Side	lateral	<i>latus</i>
Horse	equine	<i>equus</i>	Sight	visible	<i>video</i>
Kind	generic	<i>genus</i>	Spring	vernal	<i>ver</i>
Knight	equestrian	<i>equester</i>	Stream	fluvial	<i>fluvius</i>
Light	lucid	<i>lux</i>	Tongue	lingual	<i>lingua</i>
Lip	labial	<i>labium</i>	Tooth	dental	<i>dens</i>
Mankind	human	<i>homo</i>	Tree	arboreal	<i>arbor</i>

Teutonic Noun.	Latin Adjective.	Latin Root.	Teutonic Noun.	Latin Adjective.	Latin Root.
Wife	conjugal	<i>conjugus</i>	Wheel	rotatory	<i>rota</i>
Husband			Womb	uterine	<i>uterus</i>

487. Two adjectives to the same noun.—Some nouns of Teutonic origin have two sets of adjectives, one of Teutonic, the other of Latin origin. But the meanings of the two adjectives have generally some shade of difference:—

Teutonic Noun.	Teutonic Adjective.	Latin Adjective.	Latin Noun.
Anger	angry	enraged	<i>rabies</i>
Blood	bloody	sanguine, <i>sanguis</i> guinary	<i>sanguis</i>
Body	bodily	corporeal	<i>corpus</i>
Brother	brotherly	fraternal	<i>frater</i>
Burden	burdensome	onerous	<i>onus</i>
Child	childish	puerile	<i>puer</i>
Cloud	cloudy	nebular	<i>nebula</i>
Day	daily	diurnal	<i>dies</i>
Earth	earthly	terrestrial	<i>terra</i>
Father	fatherly	paternal	<i>pater</i>
Fear	fearful	timorous	<i>timor</i>
Fire	fiery	igneous	<i>ignis</i>
Flesh	fleshy	carnal	<i>caro</i>
Friend	friendly	amicable	<i>amicus</i>
Frost	frosty	glacial	<i>glacies</i>
God	godlike	divine	<i>deus</i>
Hand	handy	manual	<i>manus</i>
Heart	hearty	cordial	<i>cor</i>
Heaven	heavenly	celestial	<i>cælum</i>
Home	homely	domestic	<i>domus</i>
King	kingly	regal, royal	<i>rex</i>
Life	lively	vital	<i>vita</i>
Milk	milky	lacteal	<i>lac</i>
Mother	motherly	maternal	<i>mater</i>
Night	nightly	nocturnal	<i>nox</i>
Skin	skinny	cutaneous	<i>cutis</i>
War	warlike	bellicose	<i>bellum</i>
Water	watery	aqueous, aquatic	<i>aqua</i>
Will	wilful	voluntary	<i>voluntas</i>
Woman	womanly	feminine	<i>femina</i>
World	womanish worldly	effeminate mundane	<i>mundus</i>

488. Sometimes compound verbs go in pairs, one being of Teutonic, the other of Latin origin:—

(a) In the following list the Teutonic verbs are compounded with Teutonic *Adverbs*. The Latin verb (which is

shown in brackets) is usually compounded with a Latin prefix. Whenever the verb is transitive, some noun is placed after it as object.

Back out }	(recede).	Cry up (extol) any one.
" off		" out (exclaim).
Back up (support) one's claims.		Cut down (reduce) expenditure.
Bear out (substantiate) a charge.		" off (destroy) the enemy.
Beat off (repel) an attack.		" up (dissect) a body.
Block up (obstruct) a passage.		" out (surpass) a rival.
Blot out (obliterate) a word.		Deal out (distribute) the loaves.
Blow up (explode).		Dig out (excavate) a tunnel.
" out (extinguish) a candle.		" (disinter) a corpse.
Break down (fail) in an exam.		Done up (fatigued) with toil.
Break up (dissolve) a meeting.		Draw near (approach).
" " (disperse, disappear).		" off (divert) attention.
Breathe out (exhale).		" up (compile) a code.
Bring under (reduce) the fever.		" " (arrange) an army.
" forth (produce) fruit.		" back (recede).
" out (elicit) facts.		" in (contract or shorten).
" out (publish) a book.		" out (extract) a tooth.
" in (introduce) a new custom.		" " (prolong) a speech.
" to (resuscitate) a sick man.		" forth (elicit) applause.
" on (cause) a debate.		Drive out (expel) the enemy.
" up (educate or rear) a child.		Eat up (consume) victuals.
" forward (produce) arguments.		Egg on (instigate) any one.
Buy back (redeem).		Eke out (supplement) an income.
Call over (recite) the names.		Fall off (deteriorate, decrease).
" off (divert) one's attention.		" down (collapse).
" in (invite) a doctor.		" away (revolt).
" up (recollect) a matter.		" in (concur) with a man's opinion.
" forth (evoke) applause.		" back (retreat).
Climb up (ascend) a mountain.		" out (quarrel).
Cling to (adhere).		Fill up (complete) a list.
" together (cohere).		Find out (discover) a reason.
Cram down (devour) food.		Get in (collect) rents.
Cast out (expel) from society.		Get on (advance, make progress).
" down (dejected) with grief.		" forward (proceed, advance).
" forth (eject).		" back (recover) money.
" off (discarded) clothes.		" " (return) to a place.
" aside (reject) facts.		" down (descend).
Curse (imprecate).		" up (ascend).
Come back (return) home.		" " (master) a book.
" round or to (recover).		" off (escape).
" in (enter).		Give out (emit) a smell.
" about (occur).		" " (announce) a fact.
" down (descend).		" " (distribute) tickets.
" off (escape).		" away (present) prizes.
" on (advance).		" over (transfer) charge.
Cry down (depreciate) any one.		" " (relinquish) an attempt.

Give back (restore) anything.	Make over (transfer) charge.
„ up (surrender) a point.	Melt away (dissolve).
„ in (submit, yield).	Mislead (seduce) a person.
Go down (descend).	Ooze out (transpire).
„ up (ascend).	Outlive (survive) a person.
„ on (continue) working.	Pick up (rally, improve).
„ „ (progress).	„ out (select) the best man.
„ in (enter).	Pine away (languish).
„ over (migrate) to a new place.	Put out (extinguish) a light.
„ by (observe) directions.	„ „ (disconcert) a person.
„ away (depart) from a place.	„ off (postpone) a journey.
„ aside (deviate) from a course.	„ on (assume) haughty airs.
„ forward (proceed).	„ down (suppress) a rebellion.
„ back (deteriorate).	„ up (propose) a candidate.
„ „ (return) to a place.	„ in (introduce) a pretext.
Hand down (transmit) a name.	„ forth (exert) one's strength.
„ over (deliver) anything.	„ back (retard) anything.
Hang up (suspend) anything.	„ away (divorce) a wife.
Help on (promote) a cause.	Rake up (resuscitate) old quarrels.
Hold in (restrain) a horse.	Run down (depreciate) a person.
„ on (continue, persevere).	Send off (despatch) a messenger.
„ out (endure).	„ up (submit) a petition.
„ (extend) one's arm.	„ away (dismiss) a servant.
„ up (sustain) anything.	„ down (degrade).
„ back (restrain) a person.	Set forth (explain) one's views.
„ forth (exhibit) anything.	„ apart (reserve) some money.
„ over (postpone) a case.	„ aside (reject) a claim.
Keep up (maintain) one's energy.	„ off (embellish) a person, or
„ on (continue).	„ thing.
„ under (suppress) a cough.	„ down (record) in writing.
„ back (reserve) a portion.	„ up (suborn) false witnesses.
„ off (repel) a suitor.	„ off or out (depart).
Knock up (fatigue) a person.	„ on (incite) a dog.
Lay down (resign) an office.	„ up (erect) a pillar.
„ „ (surrender) one's arms.	Show off (display) one's goods.
„ out (invest) money.	„ up (expose) one's faults.
„ up (deposit) money.	Shut out (exclude) the rain.
Leave off (discontinue).	„ in (enclose) cows.
„ out (omit) a word.	„ up (confine) a prisoner.
Let off (remit) a fine.	Spin out (prolong) a story.
„ (release) a person.	Stand out (resist).
„ „ (discharge) an arrow.	„ „ (project).
„ in (admit) a person.	Stir up (excite) sedition.
„ out (liberate) a prisoner.	Strike off (remove) one's name.
„ (divulge) a secret.	„ in (interpose).
Lie down (recline).	Take in (admit) a person.
Lift up (exalt) a man.	„ „ (deceive) a person.
Light up (illuminate) a house.	„ „ (comprehend) one's mean-
„ upon (discover) a thing.	„ ing.
Make out (discover) one's meaning.	„ up (occupy) one's time.
„ up (concoct) a false charge.	„ „ (commence) some work.
„ „ (complete) an account.	„ „ (arrest) a person.

Take over (receive) charge.	Thrust aside (reject) an offer.
„ away (remove) anything.	„ out (eject) a tenant.
„ off (ridicule) a person.	„ together (compress).
Talk over (convert) a man.	Walk through (perambulate) a town.
Think out (devise) a plan.	„ into (enter) a room.
Throw out (reject) a bill.	Ward off (remove) a danger.
„ down (demolish) a wall.	Withdraw (retreat) into a corner.
„ up (erect) a wall.	„ (cancel) a claim.
„ „ (resign) an appointment.	Withhold (reserve) a fact.
„ off (discard) a friend.	Work out (solve) a problem.

(b) In the following examples the Teutonic verbs are followed by English *prepositions*. The Latin verb is usually preceded by a Latin prefix. A few of the Latin verbs are followed by the same preposition as the Teutonic ones.

Ask for (request) a favour.	Laugh at (deride) any one.
Bear with (tolerate) a man's temper.	Lay to (impute to) one's charge.
Beg of (entreat) a man to, etc.	Live in (inhabit) a country.
Call for (demand) an explanation.	Long for (desire) rest.
„ on (visit) a man at his house.	Look at (behold) anything.
Come after (succeed) one's father.	„ down on (despise) any one.
„ at (attain) something.	„ for (expect) anything.
„ by (acquire) something.	„ into (inspect) anything.
„ into (enter) a house.	„ on (regard) him as wise.
„ upon (encounter) a person.	„ over (examine) accounts.
„ near (approach) a person.	„ up to (respect) any one.
Crow over (exult over) an enemy.	Make away with (destroy) the princes.
Cry to (implore) heaven.	„ away with (purloin) money.
Do away with (abolish) a rule.	„ for (conduce to) well-being.
Dwell in (inhabit) a country.	„ up for (compensate for) a loss.
Fall upon (assail) the enemy.	„ up to (approach) a person.
„ to (apply oneself to) work.	Meet with (encounter) any one.
Get at (obtain) the facts.	Pore upon (attend closely to).
„ over (surmount) a difficulty.	Pry into (scrutinize) a secret.
„ through (accomplish) a work.	Put up with (endure) hostility.
Glance over (peruse cursorily) papers.	See about (attend to) some business.
Go after (pursue) the deer.	„ into (discern) one's motives.
„ against (resist, oppose) the enemy.	„ through (penetrate) one's motives.
„ along with (accompany) a person.	Set upon (assail) an enemy.
„ beyond (exceed) a limit.	Stand by (support) a friend.
„ over (examine) a place.	„ to (adhere to) one's word.
„ up to (approach) a person.	Take after (imitate) one's father.
Hold to (adhere to) an opinion.	Talk over (discuss) a subject.
Jeer at (deride) a person.	Think of (recollect) a point.
Jump at (eagerly accept) an offer.	„ over (consider) a subject.
Keep from (refrain from) evil.	Tide over (surmount) a difficulty.
„ to (adhere to) a promise.	Wait on (attend) a person.

489. Doublets are words which have the same derivation, but differ in form and almost always in meaning. The following are examples of doublets (a) of Teutonic origin, (b) of Latin and French origin, (c) of Greek origin:—

(a) Doublets of Teutonic origin.

Ant, emmet	Gabble, jabber	Morrow, morn	Skirt, shirt
Bench, bank	Grove, groove	Naught, not	Sop, sup, soup
Blare, blaze	Guard, ward	Rover, robber	Stint, stunt
Cot, coat, cote	Guise, wise	Scatter, shatter	Stove, stew
Deck, thatch	Guile, wile	Scratch, grate	Tight, taut
Dell, dale	Hale, whole	Screech, shriek	Tithe, tenth
Dole, deal	Lithesome, lis- som	Skiff, ship	Treachery, trick
Drill, thrill		Skirmish, scrim- mage	Troth, truth
Evil, ill	Load, lade		Wagon, wain

(b) Doublets of Latin and French origin.

Latin.	Meaning.	French.	Meaning.
Abbreviate	shorten	Abridge	shorten
Aggravate	make worse	Aggrieve	give pain to
Assimilate	make like	Assemble	collect
Benediction	prayer for bless- ings	Benison	prayer for bless- ings
Cadence	falling	Chance	accident
Captive	prisoner	Caitiff	mean fellow
Calumny	false charge	Challenge	defiance
Chart	piece of paper	Card	piece of paste- board
Capital	{ accumulated wealth	{ Chattels Cattle	movable pro- perty
Cavalry	horse soldiers	Chivalry	cows
Captain	head of a com- pany or of a ship	Chieftain	knighthly valour head of a clan
Complacent	satisfied	Complaisant	desirous to please
Comprehend	understand	Comprise	include
Compute	reckon up	Count	reckon up
Conception	act of conceiving	Conceit	extravagant no- tion
Describe	depict in words	Descrey	espy
Desiderate	feel the want of	Desire	feel the want of
Dissimulate	hide the facts	Dissemble	hide the facts
Diurnal	daily	Journal	diary
Debit, debt	what is owed	Due	what is owed
Extraneous	foreign, external	Strange	uncommon
Fact	reality	Feat	performance
Faction	political party	Fashion	custom
Fidelity	faithfulness	Fealty	service to a king

Latin.	Meaning.	French.	Meaning.
Fragile	physically weak	Frail	morally weak
Granary	storehouse for grain	Garner	to store up grain
Hospital	house for the sick	Hostel Hotel	lodging-house house for travellers
Implicate	involve in	Employ	give work to
Invidious	hateful, un- worthy	Envious	jealous
Indict (in-dit)	prosecute for crime	Indite	put into writing
Legal	authorised by law	Loyal	faithful in service
Lection	reading	Lesson	the thing read
Major	military title	Mayor	municipal title
Malediction	curse	Malison	curse
Native	born in a place	Naïve	ingenuous, frank
Obedience	obeying an order	Obedience	doing homage
Oration	speech	Orison	prayer
Par	equal	Pair	couple
Pauper	destitute	Peer	nobleman
Penitence	regret, remorse	Poor	not rich
Prosecute	accuse in court	Pursue	pain inflicted as a penalty for sin
Piety	godliness	Pity	follow up
Plaintive	expressing sorrow	Plaintiff	compassion
Potion	something drunk	Poison	one who brings a suit
Pungent	pricking to the taste	Poignant	a deadly drink pointed, keen, satirical
Portico	colonnade	Porch	covered entrance
Potent	powerful	Puissant	powerful
Predicate	affirm	Preach	deliver a sermon
Prolong	lengthen out	Purloin	filch
Provider	one who provides	Purveyor	one who provides
Propose	make an offer	Purpose	intention
Ratio	proportion	Reason	cause, explanation
Redemption	buying back	Ransom	the price paid
Regal	belonging to a king	Royal	king-like
Regulate	direct	Rule	govern
Respect	regard	Respite	cessation, pause
Secure	safe	Sure	certain
Senior	elder	Sir, sire	title of respect
Separate	disjoin	Sever	disjoin
Servant	one who serves	Serjeant, or ser- geant	military title
Strict	rigorous	Straight	not crooked
Superficies	term in Euclid	Strait Surface	close, narrow outer part

Latin.	Meaning.	French.	Meaning.
Supplicant	one who entreats	Suppliant	one who entreats
Tempt	put to the test	Taunt	jeer at
Tract	division of land	Trait	distinguishing feature
Tradition	what is handed down orally	Treason	betrayal of confidence
Treble	threefold	Triple	threefold
Vocal	pertaining to the voice	Vowel	not a consonant

(c) Doublets of Greek origin.

	Meaning.		Meaning.
Adamant	unbreakable stone	Diamond	valuable gem
Balsam	resin from a tree	Balm	anything that soothes
Canon	law of the church	Cannon	artillery
Canvas	strong cloth	Canvass	scrutinise
Chord	string or tone of music	Cord	rope
Crypt	underground vault	Grot, grotto	cave, recess
Disc, disk	a flat round plate	Dish	for holding food
Eremite	anchoret	Dais	raised platform
Fantasy	wild notion	Hermit	anchoret
Jealous	envious	Fancy	imagination
Monastery	abode of monks	Zealous	ardent in a cause
Phantasm	mental image	Minster	cathedral
Scandal	what causes offence	Phantom	ghost
		Slander	false charge

490. LATIN ROOTS AND DERIVATIVES.

Acer (*sharp*): acrid, acri-mony, ac-id.

Edes (*house*): edi-fice, edi-fy.

Equi-us (*level*): equ-al, equ-i-ty, equi-table, in-i-qu-i-ty, in-i-quit-i-ous, equi-valent, equi-ation.

Estim-o, *estimat*-um (*to value*): estim-eum, estim-ate, estim-ation.

Ev-un (*age*): co-eval, prim-eval.

Ager (*field*): agri-culture, agr-i-arian.

Ag-o, act-um (*to do, see in motion*): ag-ent, ag-ile, ag-ency, ag-i-lity, amb-i-guous, act, act-i-ve, ex-act, ag-i-tate.

Alli-us (*other*): alibi, alien, alienate.

Alter (*one or other of two*): alter-ation, alter, alter-nate, alter-uism.

Alt-us (*high*): alt-i-tude, ex-alt.

Am-o, *amat*-um (*to love*): amic-u-s (friend): am-i-ty, amat-ory, am-i-table, amat-eum, en-en-y, in-im-i-ical, am-i-able.

Ang-o (*to choke*): ang-uish, ang-er.

Anim-a (*breath*): anim-us (*mind*): anim-al, anim-ate, magn-anim-ous.

Ann-us (*the year*): ann-als, ann-u-al, bi-enn-i-al, anni-versary, per-enn-i-al.

Aper-io, *apert*-um (*to open*): Apr-il, aper-ture, overt, aper-tent.

Appell-o, *appellat*-um (*to call*): ap-veal, ap-pel-lative.

Apt-us (*fit*): apt-i-tude (hence atti-tude), apt, in-apt, ad-apt-ation.

Aqua-a (*water*): aque-ous, aqu-a-tic, aque-duct.

Arbor (*tree*): arbor-eal.

Arc-u-s (*bow*): arc, arch.

Ard-eo, *ars*-um (*to burn*): ard-ent, ars-on, ard-or.

Art-s (*skill*): art, art-i-fice, art-ist.

Art-us (*Joint*): articule, articulate.

Asper (*rough*): asper-i-ty, ex-asper-ate.

Aud-o, *audit*-um (*to hear*): audit, audi-ble, audi-ence, audit-or, ob-ed-i-ent, ob-o-ry, ob-el-sance.

Aug-o, *auct*-um (*to increase*): aug-ment, auct-ion, auct-or, auct-or-i-tr.

Auxili-um (*help*): auxili-ary.
 Avar-us (*greedy*): avarice, avaricious.
 Bell-um (*war*): re-bel, belli-gerent, bell-i-ose.
 Bini (*two by two*): binary, com-bine.
 Brev-is (*short*): brief, brev-ity, ab-breviate, abridge.
 Caball-us (*horse*): caval-ry, chival-ry, cavalcade.
 Cad-o, cas-um (*to fall*): case, cas-nal, oc-cas-ion, ac-cid-ent, cad-ence (hence chance), co-in-cide.
 Cad-o, cas-um (*to cut or make to fall*): sui-cide, con-cise, pre-cise, pre-cis-ion, homi-cide, cas-ura, ce-ment.
 Camp-us (*plain*): camp, en-camp, camp-aign.
 Cand-eo (*to be white or shine*), cend-o, cans-um (*to burn*): cand-le, cand-id, cand-our, in-cause, in-cen-tary.
 Can-o, cant-um (*to sing*): chant, cant-icle, re-caut, cant, ac-cent, en-chant-ment.
 Cap-i-o, capt-um (*to take*): cap-able, cap-acious, in-cip-ient, eman-cip-ate, ac-cept, re-ceipt, re-ceive, re-cept-acle, muni-cip-al.
 Cap-ut, capit-is (*the head*): cape, chap-let, capit-al; cap-tain, chief, chief-tain, chapter, pre-cip-i-tate, de-capitate.
 Car-o carn-is (*fish*): carn-al, carn-age, in-carn-ate, carn-ival, charn-el-house.
 Car-us (*dear*): cheer, cher-ish, car-ess, char-ity.
 Caus-a (*reason*): cause, ex-cuse, ac-cuse.
 Cav-us (*hollow*): cav-ity, con-cave, cave, ex-cav-ate.
 Ced-o, cess-um (*to go or yield*): cede, con-cede, con-cess-ion, ac-cess, de-cess, ac-cede, pro-ceed, in-cess-ant, cease.
 Cent-um (*a hundred*): cent, cent-ury.
 Cern-o, cret-um (*to sift or judge*): dis-cern, dis-cree, dis-cre-tion, dis-crete, se-cret, dis-cree, con-cern.
 Cert-us (*sure*): cert-ain, cert-ain-ty, as-cert-ain.
 Charta (*paper*): chart, charter, cartoon.
 Cing-o, cinct-um (*to surround*): pre-dicnts, suc-nct, cinct-ure.
 Civ-is (*citizen*): civil, civic, city.
 Claud-o, claus-um (*to shut*): clause, close, clo-sure, clois-ter, clo-set, ex-clude, con-clu-sion, con-clus-ive.
 Cognosc-o (*to examine*): re-cognise, cognis-ant, cognit-ion.
 Col-o, cult-um (*to till*): cult-ure, col-ony, cult-i-vate, agri-cult-ure, cl-own.
 Commod-us (*convenient*): com-modi-ous, ac-com-mod-ate, in-com-mod-e.
 Cor, cord-is (*the heart*): core, cord-i-al, ac-cord, con-cord, dis-cord.
 Coron-a: crown, corona-tion.
 Corp-us, corpor-is (*body*): corpse, corpse, cors-et, cors-elet, corpus-cle, cor-por-eal, in-corp-or-ate, corpor-a-tion, corp-ulent.
 Cred-o, credit-um (*to believe*): cred, credit, credit-able, in-cred-ible, cred-ence.
 Cresc-o (*to grow*): in-crease, de-creas-e, crescent, ac-cretion.
 Crux, cruc-is (*cross*): cross, cruci-fy, cruc-i-al, crus-ade, ex-cruciate.
 Culpa (*fault*): culp-able, in-culpate, ex-cul-pate.
 Cur-a (*care*): cure, cur-i-ous, se-cure, in-cure-able. No connection with care.
 Curr-o, curs-um (*to run*): course, curr-ent, curr-ency, pre-curs-or, curr-i-icle, oc-cur, suc-cour, curr-i-culum, curs-ory.
 Damn-o, damnat-um: damn, con-damn, damnat-ion, dam-age.
 Deb-eo, debit-um (*to owe*): debt, debt, due, debit-able.
 Decem (*ten*): Decem-ber, decim-al, decim-ate.
 Dict-o, dict-um (*to say*): dict-a-tion, contra-dict, in-dict, dict-ion, pre-dict.
 Di-es (*day*), diurn-us (*daily*): di-ary, dail-ly, diurn-al (hence journal), ad-just-ment.
 Dign-us (*worthy*): deign, con-dign, dign-i-ty.
 Do, dat-um (*to give*): date, ad-d, dat-i-ve, e-dit, ad-dit-ion, ren-dit-ion, ren-de-rer.
 Doc-eo, doct-um (*to teach*): doc-ile, doc-ter.
 Dolor (*grief*): dole-ful, dolor-ous, con-dole.
 Dom-in-us (*master*): domin-ion, dom-in-ain, domin-ate.
 Dub-ub (*doubtful*): dubious, doubt, in-dub-it-able.
 Duke-o, duct-um (*to lead*): duke, duct, con-duct, duct-i-le, re-duce, intro-duct-ion, e-duc-ate.
 Dur-o, durat-um (*to last*): dur-ing, en-dure, durat-ion, dur-able.
 Ed-o (*to eat*): edible, esculent.
 Em-o, empt-um (*to buy*): ex-empt, pre-empt, red-eem, redemp-tion (hence ransom), per-empt-ory.
 Ens, esse (*to be*): est (*it is*): abs-ent, ent-i-ty, es-sent-i-al, ess-ent-i-al, abs-en-ce, inter-est.
 E-o, iti-um (*to go*); iens (*going*): it-ex, itin-er-iis (*journey*): amb-i-ent, amb-it-ion, ex-it, trans-it, in-it-ial, per-ish, itin-er-ary, circu-it.
 Equ-us (*horse*): equ-i-ne, equ-i-strian, equ-erry.
 Err-o, errat-um (*to wander*): err, error, errat-ic, ab-erration, erroneous.
 Exempl-um: example, sample, exempli-ary.
 Experi-or (*to try*): experience, experi-ment, expert.
 Faci-es face, facial, sur-face, super-ficial.

Faci-is (*easy*): facul-ty, dif-ficul-tate.

Fact-o, fact-um (*to make*): fact, feat, af-fact, fact-or, per-fect, fact-ory, of-fice, bene-fice, bene-fit, bene-fact-or, honori-fic, magni-fic-ent, magni-fy, horri-fy, counter-feit.

Fam-a (*report*): fame, in-fam-eus, de-fam-ation.

Femin-a (*woman*): femin-i-ne, ef-femin-ate.

Fend-o, fens-um (*to strike*): fend-er, of-fence, fence, de-fend, in-de-fens-ible.

Fer-o, lat-um (*to bear or bring*): re-fer, fer-ile, con-fer, con-fer-ence, auri-fer-ous, dif-fer-ence, di-late, re-late, trans-late, super-lat-ive.

Ferr-um (*iron*): farrier, ferruginous.

Ferv-eo (*to be hot*): ferv-id, ferv-ent, ef-ferv-esce.

Fid-es (*trust*): faith, faith-ful-ness, fid-eli-ty (hence fealty), in-fid-el, con-fide, per-fid-y, de-fy, de-fi-ance.

Fig-o, fix-um (*to fix*): fix, fixt-ure, pre-fix, suf-fix, fix-ity.

Fili-us (*son*): filial, af-filiate.

Fing-o, fict-um (*to pretend*): fict-ion, fict-it-ous, feign, figure.

Fin-is (*end*): finish, finite, final, in-fin-i-tive.

Fisc-us (*treasury*): fisc-al, con-fisc-ate.

Flect-o, flex-um (*to bend*): re-flect, re-flex, flex-ible, in-flex-ion, re-flect-ion, circum-flex, re-flex-ive.

Flos (*flower*): florid, flourish.

Flu-o, flux-um (*to flow*): fluxt-us (*a wave*): in-flux, flu-ate, flux, flow, flu-id.

Fort-i-s (*strong*): fort-i-fy, fort-ress, fort-i-tude.

Frang-o, frag, fract-um (*to break*): frag-ment, frag-ile (hence frail), fract-ion, in-fringe, in-fringe-ment.

Frons: front, ad-front, con-front, front-piece.

Fru-or, fruit-um (*to enjoy*): fruit-us (*fruit*): frug-al, fruit-ion, fruit, fruct-i-ly.

Fug-i-o, fugit-um (*to flee*): fugit-i-ve, re-fug-e, re-fuge.

Fund-o, fus-um (*to pour*): pro-fuse, fus-ible, re-fund, con-found, con-fus-ion, dif-fuse, found-ry.

Fund-us (*bottom*): found, found-ation, pro-found, found-er.

Gen-us, gener-is (*kind*): gens, gent-is (*race*): gener-al, gen-i-al, gener-ation, indi-gen-ous, gen-tle, gent-ile, gent-eel, in-gen-ous, pro-gen-y, re-gener-ate, gender, en-gend-er.

Gero, gest-um (*to bear*): gest-ure, sug-gest, belli-gerent.

Glacies (*ice*): glacial, glacier.

Grad-i-or, grass-us (*to step*): grad-u-al, de-gree, grad-ation, trans-gress, pro-gress.

Grav-is (*heavy*): grief, griev-ous, grave, grav-i-ate, ag-grav-ate.

Greg-o, greg-um (*a flock*): ag-greg-ate, e-greg-i-ous, greg-arious, con-greg-ation.

Hab-eo, habit-um (*to have*): habit-, habitat-um (*to dwell in*): have, habit, ex-habit, hab-iliment, pro-habit, in-habit, habitat-ion, habit-able.

Hes-i-to-nate (*to stick*): ad-here, hes-i-tate.

Her-eo: heir, in-her-it, hered-it-ary.

Homin-i-s (*man*): homi-cide, hum-an, hum-ane.

Hosp-e-s, hospit-is (*a guest or host*): hospital, hospit-able, host, host-el, hot-el.

Hum-us (*ground*): ex-hume, hum-il-i-ate, hum-bie.

Imper-o, imperat-um (*to command*): imper-i-al, imper-i-ous, empire, emper-or, imper-a-tive.

Ingen-i-um (*talent*): engine, ingenious.

Insul-a (*island*): isle, insul-ate (hence insula), insul-ar.

Integer (*whole*): integral, integr-ity, entire.

Ire-a (*anger*): ire, ir-ate, ir-asci-ble.

Jac-eo (*to lie down*): ad-jac-ent, gis-

Jac-to, jac-tum, jacul-or (*to throw*): e-jacul-ate, ob-ject, re-ject, pro-ject, pro-ject-ile, ad-jec-tive, de-ject-ed, con-jec-ture.

Judex, judic-is (*judge*): judge, judg-ment, judic-i-al, judic-i-ous, pre-judice.

Jug-um (*yoke*): con-jug-al, con-jug-ate, jug-ular.

Jung-o, junct-um (*to join*): junct-ure, con-junct-ion, ad-junct, joint, join, ad-join.

Jur-o, jurat-um (*to swear*): jur-y, ab-jure, perjur-y, con-jure, ad-jurat-ion.

Jus, jur-is (*equity*): just, justice, in-jury, juris-dic-tion.

Lab-or, laps-us (*slide*): lapse, col-lapse, re-lapse.

Laid-o, las-um (*to hurt*): les-ion, e-lide, collis-ion.

Lat-us, later-is (*a side*): lateral, eu-lateral, col-lateral.

Leg-o, legat-um (*to depute*): legate, legacy, legatee, legat-ion, al-lege, de-legate.

Leg-o, lect-um (*to read or choose*): leg-end, di-lig-ent, e-lect, col-lect, neg-lect, leg-i-ble, intel-lect, intel-lig-i-ble, sacri-leg.

Lev-is (*light*): re-lief, re-lieve, lev-ity, al-lev-i-ate.

Lex, leg-is (*law*): leg-al, loy-al, leg-i-late, leg-i-timate.

Liber (*free*): liber-al, liber-ty, de-liver.

Liber (*a book*): libr-ary, libel.

Liber (*balance*): de-liberate.

Lig-o, ligat-um (*to bind*): ligat-ure, leag-ne, lig-a-ment, ob-lig-a-tion, ob-lige, re-ligion.

Lingu-a (tongue): linguist, language.
Liter-a: letter, liter-ate, liter-ature, liter-al.

Loc-u-s (a place): loc-o, locat-um (*to place*): loc-al, loco-motion, loc-ality, loc-ate, locat-ion, col-locat-ion.

Locu-or, locut-u-s (to speak): e-locut-ion, e-locu-ence, locu-acious, col-locu-ity.

Lud-o, lus-um (*to play*): e-lude, indi-ter-ous, al-lus-ion, col-lus-ion, de-lude, il-lusory.

Lun-a (moon): lun-ar, lun-atic.

Lu-o, lut-um (*to wash*): pol-lute, di-lute, ab-lut-ion, de-lu-ge, al-luv-i-al.

Machin-a: machine, machin-ation, mechan-ic, mechan-ism.

Magister (a master): magistr-ate, magistracy, master, master-ful, magis-ter-i-al, master-y.

Magn-u-s, (great): major, mayor, magn-ate, magni-fy, magn-est-y.

Man-eo, mans-um (*to stay*): mans-ion, re-main, per-man-ent, re-mnant, im-mi-nent, e-min-ent.

Man-u-s (the hand): manu-al, manu-acle, manu-script, main-tain, e-manu-cipate, manu-fac-ture, a-manu-ensis, man-age, main-tain.

Mare (the sea): mar-i-ne, sub-mar-i-ne, marin-er, marin-time.

Mater (mother): mater-nal, mater-nity, matr-on, matr-mon-y.

Mens, ment-i-s (the mind): men-tal, de-ment-ed.

Merg-o, mer-um (*to dip*): sub-merge, e-mer-gency, im-merse, in-mer-sion.

Met-i-or, mens-u-s (*to measure*): meas-ure, im-me-sure, mens-ur-ation, com-mens-urate.

Merx, merc-i-s (*goods for sale*): merch-ant, com-merce, merch-andise, mark-et.

Min-or (less): min-o-um, minut-um (*to make less*): min-or-ity, min-or, minute, di-min-ish, min-imum.

Misc-eo, mixt-u-n (*to mix*): mixt-ure, misc-ellaneous, mix, pro-misc-uous.

Mitt-o, miss-u-n (*to send*): ad-mit, mis-sion, miss-ion-ary, pro-mise, pre-mise, pro-miss-ory, miss-ile.

Mod-u-s (*a measure*): mod-er-ate, mod-est, mod-el, mod-if-y, mood, mode.

Mol-a (that which grinds): mill, meal, mol-ar, im-mol-a-te, e-mol-u-ment.

Mon-eo, monit-u-n (*to advise*): monit-or, ad-mon-ish, mon-u-ment.

Mons: mount, mount-ain, sur-mount, pre-mont-ory.

Mord-eo, mors-um (*to bite*): mors-el, re-morse.

Mors, mort-i-s (*death*): mortal, mort-ify, mort-gage.

Mos, mor-i-s (*custom*): moral, mor-ality, de-mor-al-i-sa-tion.

Mov-eo, mot-um (*to move*): motion, re-mote, com-mot-ion, re-mo-ve, move-ment, mo-ment, mot-i-ve.

Mus-a (*goddess of poetry*): mus-ic, a-muse, mus-eum.

Mun-u-s, muner-is (*a gift*): re-mun-erate, mun-i-ficent, com-mune, com-mon.

Nasc-or, nat-u-s (*to be born*): nat-i-ve, nat-al, nasc-ent, in-nate, cog-nate, nat-ure, na-tion.

Nav-i-s (*a ship*): navi-gate, naut-i-cal, nav-y, nav-y, nav-al.

Neg-o, negat-um (*to deny*): negat-i-ve, nega-tion, re-negade.

Nox-eo (*to hurt*): in-nox-ent, nox-i-ous, nui-sance.

Nos-co, not-u-m (*to know*): nomen (name): noun, no-bie, ig-nom-i-ny, note, no-te, no-ice.

Nov-u-s: novel, re-nov-ate, in-nov-ation, nov-ice.

Nox (night): noct-urn-al, equi-nox.

Null-u-s (*none*): null-i-fy, an-nul, null, null-ity.

Nutri-to, nutrit-um (*to nourish*): nutri-ment, nour-ish, nour-ish-ment, nurse, nutrit-ious.

Ocul-u-s (*eye*): ocul-ar, ocul-ist, in-ocu-late.

Offic-i-jum (*duty*): office, offic-i-al, officious, offic-i-ate.

Ole-u-m: oil, ole-aginous.

Omen (omen): omin-ous, ab-omin-ate.

Omn-i-s (*all*): omni-potent, omni-bus.

On-u-s (*burden*): oner-ous, ex-oner-ate.

Orb-i-s (*circle*): orb, orb-it, ex-orbit-ant.

Ol-esco, olet-um or ult-um (*to grow*): red-ol-ent, obs-ole-te, ad-ult.

Or-o, orat-u-m (*to speak or pray*): ad-or, ad-or-a-tion, orat-ion (hence oris-on), orat-or.

Or-i-or, ort-u-s (*to arise*): or-i-ent, or-i-ental, or-i-gin, ab-ort-i-ve.

Os, or-i-s (*the mouth*): oral, or-i-fice, os-cu-late (hence os-cil-late).

Pand-o, pams-um or pass-um (*to spread*): ex-pand, ex-pans-e, ex-pans-ion, com-pass, tres-pass, pass, pace.

Pang-o, pact-u-n (*to fasten*): im-pinge, com-pact.

Par (equal): com-pare, com-par-i-on, peer, com-peer, dis-par-i-ty, pair, um-pire.

Par-i-o, part-u-n (*to bring forth*): par-ent, fisi-par-ous, vivi-par-ous (hence vi-ter), part-u-rit-ion.

Par-o, parat-u-n (*to get ready*): par-ade, ap-par-ut-us, pre-pare, pre-par-a-tion.

Par-sa, part-i-s (*part or share*): part-i-al, im-part-i-al, part, part-ner, a-part-ment, par-sa, par-ticle, part-i-cular.

Pater (*father*): pater-nal, patr-on, patri-mon-y, patr-i-cian.

Patri-a (*native land*): patri-ot, ex-patri-ate.

Pat-i-or, pass-u-s (*to suffer*): pati-ent, pass-i-ve, pass-ion, com-pat-i-ble.

Pax, pac-i-s (*peace*): ap-peace, peace, pa-ceful, peace-ful.

Pell-o, puls-um (*to drive*): com-pel, pulse, im-pulse, ex-puls-ion, re-puls-ive.

Pend-o or eo, pens-um (*to pay or hang*): sus-pend, sus-pense, pend-ent, de-pend, ex-pend, dis-pense, im-pend-ing, per-pend-icular.

Pes, ped-is (*foot*): ped-estrian, im-pede, ped-estal, bi-ped, quadru-ped, centi-pede, ex-ped-ient, ex-pedite.

Pet-o, petit-um (*to seek*): petit-ion, com-pete, com-pet-ent, ap-petite, im-petuous.

Plac-eo, placit-um (*to please*): plac-id, com-plac-ent, complais-ant, please.

Ple-o, plen-um (*to fill*): plen-us (*full*): plen-ary, plen-itude, sup-ply, sup-ple-ment, com-ply, com-ple-ment, complete, replete, re-plenish.

Plic-o, plicat-um (*or pleat*, *or plect*, *or plex*, *or fold*): com-plex, com-plicated, ap-ple-ant, ex-plic-it, im-plicate, im-ply, sim-ple, dou-ble, du-plex, tri-ple or tre-ble, quadru-ple, sim-plicity.

Plus, plur-is (*more*): plural, plus, sur-plus.

Poma (*punishment*): pen-al, pain, re-pent, pen-iten-ce.

Pon-o, posit-um (*to place*): sup-pose, sup-position, post, de-posit, de-position, de-pon-ent, op-pon-ent, ap-posite, ap-position, re-pose, op-posite, post-pone, pre-position.

Popul-us (*people*): popul-ace, popul-ation, de-popul-ate, popul-ar, people, publis-h.

Poss-um or pot-is-sum (*to be able*): poss-ible, poss-ibility, pot-ent, pot-ential, omni-pot-ent, pot-ency.

Pret-i-um (*price*): preci-ous, de-pre-ciate, price.

Frehend-do, prehens-um (*to take or grasp*): com-prehend, com-prehens-ible, re-prehens-ible, ap-prehens-ion, pris-on, sur-prise, prize.

Pre-o, precat-us (*to pray*): pray, prayer, im-precat-ion.

Prim-us (*first*): prim-itive, prime, prim-eval.

Prob-o, probat-um (*to try or test*): prob-ation, prove, proof, prob-able, re-pro-bate, re-proof, ap-probation, ap-proval, dis-ap-proval.

Propri-us: proper, proper-ty, propri-ety, ap-propri-ate.

Pugn-o (*to fight*): im-pugn, pugna-cions, re-pugn-ant.

Pung-o, punct-um (*to prick*): punct-ual, punct-illous, point, pung-ent, ex-punge, punct-u-ation.

Put-o, putat-um (*to cut or think*): am-pu-tate, dis-pute, dis-put-ant, dis-puta-tion, re-pute, re-puta-tion, com-pute (hence co-unt).

Quar-o, quasit-um (*to seek*): query, ac-quire, ac-quisi-tion, ex-quisi-te, in-quest, in-quiry, in-quisi-tive, quest-ion.

Quati-o, quass-um (*to shake*): quash, dis-cuss, per-cuss-ion.

Quat-nor (*four*): quadra (*square*): quadru-ped, quadra-nt, quart, quadra-ton, quadru-ple.

Rad-i-us (*a streak of light*): ray, radi-ant, rad-i-ate, rad-i-ance.

Rado, ras-um (*to scrape*): raz-or, e-rase, e-ras-ure.

Rap-io, rapt-um (*to seize*): rap-id, rapt-ure, rapt, rap-acious, sur-repti-tious, rav-enous.

Reg-o, rect-um (*to rule*): reg-ular, reg-ulation, rule, cor-rect, rect-angular, right, right-angled, di-rect, in-di-rect, reign, reg-al (hence ro-yal).

Res (*thing*): re-al, reality, really, re-public.

Riv-us: river, riv-ulet, de-rive, riv-al.

Rog-o, rogat-um (*to ask*): rogat-ion, inter-rogate, inter-rogat-ive, pro-rogue.

Rota (*a wheel*): rot-a-tion, ro-und, roll.

Rump-o, rupt-um (*to break*): rupt ure, route, rout, rote, ab-rupt, bank-rupt, bank-rupt-oy.

Rus, rur-is (*country*): rur-al, rus-tic, rus-ticate.

Sacer: sacred, sacer-dot-al, sacri-fa-cie, sacri-fice.

Sal-io, salt-um (*to leap*): sal-ly, sa-vient, as-sault, re-sult, ex-ult, as-sail, sal-mon, in-sult.

Sanct-us (*sacred*): sanct-i-fy, saint, saint-ly, sancti-monious, sanct-u-ary.

Sangu-is, sanguin-is, (*blood*): sanguine, sanguin-i-ary.

Sap-io, sap-or (*taste*): sa-vour, sapient, in-sip-id.

Sat, satis (*enough*): satis-fy, satis-factory, sat-i-ate.

Sci-o (*to know*): sci-ence, pre-sci-ence, con-sci-ence, omni-science.

Scrib-o, script-um (*to write*): script, scribe, scrib-ble, post-script, in-script-ion, de-scribe, scriv-ener, manu-script.

Sec-o, sect-um (*to cut*): seg-ment, sec-tion, bi-sect, di-sect, sect, sec-tarian.

Sed-eo, sess-um (*to sit*): sed-i-ment, seat, set-tle, sess-ion, re-side, re-sid-ence, pro-sid-ent, super-sede, sed-an, pos-sess, as-sid-nous.

Sent-i-o, sens-um (*to feel*): sent-i-ment, sense, sensa-tion, con-sent, con-sens-us, sent-ence, re-sent, re-sent-ment, dis-sen-sion, non-sense, scent.

Sequ-o, secur-us (*to follow*): sequ-ence, con-sequ-ence, ex-ecute, pro-secute, sequ-el, pur-sue, en-sue, pur-sue.

Ser-o, ser-um (*to set in a row*): ser-mon, ser-ies, ser-ial, in-ser-t, ex-er-t, ex-er-tion.

Serv-us (*a slave*): serv-io, servit-um (*to be a slave*): serv-i-cie, serv-itudo, serve, serf, de-serve.

Serv-o, servat-um (*to keep*): pre-serve, pre-serv-ation, ob-serve, ob-serv-ant, ob-serv-atory.

Sign-um (*sign*): sign-al, sign-ify, sign, as-sign, as-sign-ment, con-sign-ment, de-sign, en-sign.

Simil-is (*like*): simil-ar, re-sem-ble, as-sim-i-ate, simul-ate.

Sist-o (*to stop or stand*): as-sist, de-sist, re-sist, co-sist-ent, per-sist-ent, re-sist-ance.

Solv-o, solut-um (*to loosen*): solve, re-solve, re-solut-ion, dis-solve, solu-ble, ab-solute, dis-solute, re-solute, ab-solve.

Sparg-o, spars-um (*to scatter*): sparse, sparse-ly, dis-perse, dis-per-sion, as-per-sion.

Spati-um: space, spac-i-ous, ex-pati-ate.

Spec-io, spect-um (*to see*): spec-ies, spec-acle, re-spect, su-spic-ion, spec-i-al, de-spise, spect-ator, spec-i-men, a-spect.

Spir-o, spirat-um (*to breathe*): spirit-us (*breath*): spirit, spirit-u-ous, spirit-ual, con-spire, ex-pire, in-spire, con-spir-ator, sprite.

Spond-eo, spons-um (*to promise*): spons-or, spouse, e-spouse, de-spond, re-sponse, cor-re-spond-ence, re-spons-ible.

Stern-o, strat-um (*to throw down*): strew, pro-sta-rate, strew, strat-ify, con-stern-ation.

Sto, stat-um (*to stand*): state, stat-us, stat-ion, sta-ble, sta-bility, di-stant, sub-stance, arni-stic-e, in-stit-ute, sol-stice.

String-o, strict-um (*to bind*): strict, strait, strain, string-ent, as-trig-ent, strict-ure, re-strict, con-strain.

Stru-o, struct-um (*to build*): struct-ure, con-struct-ion, de-stroy, in-strument, con-strue.

Sum-mus, (highest): sum, summ-it, con-sum-mate.

Sum-o, sumpt-um (*to take*): con-sume, as-sum-e, as-sump-tion, pre-sume, pre-sumpt-u-ous.

Super (*above*): super-i-or, super-e-me, hence sover-sign, suprein-acy.

Surg-o, surrect-um (*to rise*): source, re-source, in-surg-ent, in-surrec-tion, re-surrec-tion.

Tang-o, tact-um (*to touch*): tact, tang-i-ble, con-tact, con-tig-uous, tang-ent, con-tag-ion.

Teg-o, tect-um (*to cover*): teg-ument, pro-tect, pro-tec-tion.

Temper-o, temperat-um (*to control*): temper, temper-ate, temperat-ure.

Temp-us, tempor-is (*time*): tense, tempor-al, con-tempor-ary, tempor-ise, ex-tempo-ise.

Tend-o, tens-um (*to stretch*): port-tent, tent, por-tend, tens-ion, tend, at-ter-ent, at-tention, in-tense.

Ten-o, tent-um (*to hold*): ten-u-ous, ten-ant, con-tin-ent, con-tin-u-al, con-tin-uous, con-tent, con-tain, re-tent-i-ve, ten-able, ten-acious, obs-tin-ate.

Ter-o, trit-um (*to rub*): trite, con-trite, de-tri-ment.

Ter-ta (*the earth*): in-ter, ter-estrial, ter-ri-er, terr-a-ce.

Ter-ter (*to frighten*): terr-or, terri-fy, de-ter-ent.

Test-is (*a witness*): test-or, testa-tus (*to witness*): test-a-ment, at-test, at-testa-tion, de-test, in-testate, test-i-ify, con-test, test, testi-mony.

Tex-o, text-um (*to weave*): text, tex-ture, tex-tile, con-text, pre-text.

Torqu-eo, tort-um (*to twist*): dis-tort, tort, tort-u-ous, con-tor-tion, tor-ment.

Trah-o, tract-um (*to draw*): por-tray, por-trait, tract, tract-able, con-tract, trait, treat, ab-s tract.

Tu-eor, tuit-um (*to see*): tuit-i-on, tu-or, tut-elage.

Ultra (*beyond*): outr-age, ult-i-mate, pen-ult-i-mate, ultimatum, ultra-i-or.

Umbr-a (*shade*): umbr-ella, umbr-age.

Un-us (*one*): un-i-ty, un-i-te, un-i-verse, un-i-on, un-i-que.

Und-a (*wave*): und-u-late, ab-ound, red-ound, red-und-ant, ab-und-ance, in-und-ate.

Ungu-o, unct-um (*to smear*): oint-ment, an-oint, unct-ion, unct-nous, ungu-ent.

Urb-s (*city*): urb-an, sub-urb, urb-ane, urb-anity.

Vacc-a (*cow*): vacc-i-ne, vacc-i-nation.

Vac-o, vacat-um (*to be unoccupied*): vac-ant, vaca-te, vaca-tion, vac-u-um, vac-u-ate.

Vag-or (*to wander*): vag-rant, vag-u-ous, vag-abond, vag-ary, extra-vag-ant.

Val-eo (*to be strong*): a-val, pre-vail, val-id, vale-dictory, equi-val-ent, con-val-esc-ent, val-ue, val-u-able.

Veh-o, vect-um (*to carry*): veh-ement, veh-i-cle, con-vey, in-vect-i-ve.

Vell-o, vuls-um (*to pluck*): con-vulse, re-vuls-ion.

Vel-um (*veil*): veil, re-veal.

Ven-a (*vene*): ven-ous, ven-e-section.

Ven-i-o, vent-um (*to come*): vent-ure, pre-vent, ad-vent, ad-vent-u-ous, con-ven-tion, a-ven-ue, super-vene, inter-ven-tion.

Verb-um: verb, word, verb-al, pro-verb, verb-ose.

Vert-o, vers-um (*to turn*): ad-vert, vert-ex, con-vert, con-verse, re-vert, re-verse, di-verse, di-vorce, ad-vert-i-se.

Via (*a road or way*): de-ri-ate, voy-age, tri-va-l (hence tri-ve), pre-vious, en-voy.

Vid-eo, vis-um (*to see*): vis-age, vis-ion, vis-i-ble, e-vi-dent, en-vy, sur-vey, pro-vide, pro-vid-ent (hence prudent), pro-vision.

Vinc-o, *vict-um (to conquer)*: vict-ory, con-vict, con-vince, in-vinc-ible, vanquish.

Vir (*a man*): vir-ile, vir-tue, trium-vir, vir-ago.

Viv-o, *vict-um (to live)*: vict-uals, vivacious, re-vive, sur-vive.

Voc-o, *vocat-um (to call)*: vocat-ion, in-voke, ad-voc-ate, voc-al, vow-el, voice.

491. GREEK ROOTS

Agon (*struggle*): agon-y, ant-agon-ist.

Akr-os (*top*): akr-obat, akr-opolis.

Angel-os (*messenger*): angel, ev-angel-ist, angel-ic.

Anthrop-os (*man*): anthrop-ology, mis-anthro-pe.

Aster (*a star*): aster-isk, aster-oid, astro-nomy.

Athl-on (*contest*): athlete, athl-etie.

Arch-e (*rule*): mon-arch, archi-TECT, hept-arch-y.

Auto (*self*): auto-crat, auto-graph, auto-nomy.

Ball-o, **bole** (*throw*): sym-bol, hyperbole, para-bol, pro-blem, em-blem.

Basis (*treading, support*): basis, base, base-ment.

Biblio (*book*): bible, biblio-graphy, biblio-pole.

Bi-o (*life*): amphi-bi-ous, bio-logy, bio-graphy, ceno-bite.

Chor-os (*band of singers*): choir, chorister, chorus.

Chron-os (*time*): chrono-meter, chrono-logy, chron-icle, ana-chron-ism.

Dem-o-s (*people*): dem-agogue, demo-cracy, demo-graphy, epi-dem-ic.

Dox-a, **dog-ma** (*an opinion*): hetero-dox, para-dox, dogma, dog-natic.

Dra-o (*to act*): dras-tic, dra-ma.

Dunam-is (*power*): dynam-ics, dy-na-sy (Gr. dunast-es, a lord).

Eidol-on (*an image*): idol, idol-ize, idol-atriy.

Eleemosyn-e (*pity*): alms, eleemosyn-ary.

Ethn-os (*race*): heathen, ethn-ic, ethn-o-logy.

Erg-on (*work*): en-erg-y, lit-urg-y, cheir-urg-eon (hence surg-eon), metall-urg-y.

Gam-os (*marriage*): mono-gamy, poly-gamy, bi-gamy.

Ge (*the earth*): ge-ography, apo-gee, ge-ology, ge-ometry.

Gon-ia (*an angle*): penta-gon, hexa-gon, dia-gon-al.

Graph-o (*to write*); **gram-ma** (*something written*): epi-gram, mono-gram, tele-gram, tele-graph, gram-mar, bio-graph-y, geo-graph-y, graphic, auto-graph.

Hod-os (*a way*): meth-od, peri-od, ex-od-us, ep-is-ode.

Vol-o (*to be willing*): volit-ion, bene-vol-ent, vol-untary.

Volv-o, *volut-um (to roll)*: re-volve, in-vol-tion, vol-ume, re-volut-ion, in-volve, volu-ble.

Vor-o (*to eat up*): de-vour, vor-acious, carni-vor-ous.

Vov-eo, *vot-um (to vow)*: vote, de-vote, de-vout, de-vot-ion, de-vot-ee, vot-ary, vow; a-vow, a-vow-al.

AND DERIVATIVES.

Hol-os (*entire*): cat-hol-ic, holocaust.

Hudor (*water*): hydr-ant, hydro-statics, hydro-meter, hydro-gen, dropsy, hydro-phobia.

Idi-os (*peculiar*): idi-ot, idi-om, idio-syn-cras-y.

Is-o-s (*equal*): iso-sceles, iso-thermal.

Kentr-on (*point*): centre, central, ex-centr-ic, centri-fugal.

Klimax (*ladder*): climax, climac-teric.

Kosm-os (*the world*): cosm-etic, cosmo-polite, cosmo-graphy, cosmo-gony.

Krat-os (*power*): demo-crat, demo-cracy, arist-o-crat.

Krit-es (*a judge*): crit-is (*Judgment*): hypo-cris-y, critis, hypo-crite, crit-ic, crit-ic-ise.

Krupt-o, **Kruph** (*to hide*): crypt, apo-crypha.

Kukl-os (*a circle*): en-cyclo-pedia, cycle, bi-cycle, by-cycl-ist.

Leg-o, **lect** (*speak*): log-os (*word*): dia-logue, pro-logue, dia-lect, lex-icon, log-ic, anthro-log-y, geo-log-y, ec-lect-ic, dia-lect-ic.

Leip-o,leip-s (*to fail*): ec-lipse, el-lipse, el-ipt-ical.

Lith-o-s (*a stone*): mono-lith, litho-graph.

Lus-is (*a loosening*): anal-lys-is, ana-lyse, para-lys-is, (hence pals-y).

Metr-on (*measure*): baro-meter, geo-metry, metre.

Naus (*ship*): nau-sa, naut-ical.

Ne-o-s (*new*): neo-phyte, neo-logy, neo-Latin.

Neur-on (*nerve*): neur-algia.

Nom-o-s (*law*): astro-nom-y, eco-nom-y, gastro-nom-y.

Ode-o (*a song*): mon-od-y, ep-ode, pros-od-y, par-od-y.

Oik-o-s (*a house*): eco-nomy, di-oc-ese, par-och-i-al, par-ish.

Onoma (*a name*): syn-on-y, an-on-y-mous.

Organ-on (*an instrument*): organ, or-gan-ise, organ-ic.

Ops-is (*sight*), **opt-omai** (*to see*): opt-ics, opt-ical, syn-ops-is, syn-optical.

Orth-o (*right*): ortho-graphy.

Path-o (*feeling*): syn-path-y, anti-path-y, path-etic.

Pais,paid-o-s (*a boy*): ped-agogue, ped-ant, ped-antic.

Phain-ō, phant (*to appear*): phen-onenon, phant-asm (hence phant-om), phant-asy (hence fan-ey), phase.

Phem-i (*to speak*): pro-phet, pro-phes-y, blas-pheme, eu-phem-ism.

Phil-ōs (*friend*): philo-sopher, Indo-philus (friend of India): Russo-phile (friendly to Russians); phil-anthropy.

Phon-e (*voice*): phon-etic, symphon-y. **Phus-is** (*nature*): phys-ic, phys-ics, meta-phys-ics, phys-ical, neo-phyte.

Poi-eo, poe-tet (*to make*): poet, poet-ry, poes-y, po-em, onomo-poe-i-a.

Po-leo (*to sell*): mono-pol-y, mono-pol-ist, biblio-pole.

Pol-is (*a city or state*): pol-i-cie, pol-i-cies, cosmo-pol-i-te.

Pous, pod-ōs (*foot*): anti-pod-es, tri-pod, poly-pus.

Prass-o, prakt (*to do*); pragm-a (*a deed*): pract-ise, pract-ice, pragm-atical.

Prot-o-s (*first*): proto-type, proto-martyr.

Psich-e (*soul or life*): metem-psych-o-sis, psych-ical, psych-ology.

Scop-eo (*to see*): scope, tele-scope, micro-scope, epi-scop-al, bishop.

Soph-ōs (*wise*): soph-ism, soph-ist, philo-sopher, philo-soph-y.

Sphair-e (*a ball*): sphere, hemi-sphere, spher-ical.

Stas-is (*standing*): ec-stasy, apo-stasy, sy-stem.

Stell-o (*to send*): apo-stle, epi-stle, epi-stol-ary, apo-stolic.

Stroph-e (*a turning*): apo-stroph-e, cata-stroph-e.

Takt-os (*arranged*): tax-is (*order*): tact-ics, syn-tax.

Techn-e (*an art*): techn-ical, pyro-techn-ics.

Tele (*far off*): tele-scope, tele-gram.

The-o-s (*God*): theo-sophy, theo-logy, the-i-ist, pan-the-i-st, poly-the-i-st, a-the-i-st, mono-the-i-st.

Thes-is, them-a (*a placing*): syn-the-sis, theme, hypo-thesis, hypo-thet-i-cal.

Tom-e (*a cutting*): a-tom, tome, ana-tom-y.

Ton-os (*a note, a stretching*): ton-ic, mono-tone, mono-ton-ous, tone.

Top-os (*place*): top-ic, topo-graphy.

Trop-e (*a turning*): trop-ic, trop-ics, helio-trope.

Tup-os (*stamp*): type, typ-ical, typ-i-fy, anti-type, stereo-type.

Zo-on (*animal*): zo-di-ac, zoo-phyte, zoo-logy.

PART V.—FIGURES OF SPEECH, POETIC DICTION, PROSODY.

CHAPTER XXVIII.—FIGURES OF SPEECH.

492. A Figure of Speech (or of Rhetoric, as it is sometimes called) is a deviation from the ordinary use of words, with a view to increasing their effect.

Thus, we can say, "There are six *pillars* to the verandah of this house." Here the word *pillars* is used in its ordinary or literal sense.

Again, we can say, "That man is a *pillar* of the state."

Here *pillar* is used in a figurative or non-literal sense and signifies "support."

493. Simile.—A Simile consists in giving *formal* expression to the likeness said to exist between two different objects or events.

The formality peculiar to a Simile consists in using some word or words for drawing attention to the likeness. The words commonly used for this purpose are *as*, *as—so*, *like*.

Errors, *like* straws, upon the surface flow;
He that would search for pearls must dive below.—*Dryden*.
True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learnt to dance.—*Pope*.
And *as a hare*, whom hounds and horns pursue,
Pants to the place from whence at first she flew,
So I had hopes, my long vexations past,
Here to return, and die at home at last.—*Goldsmith*.

494. Metaphor.—An *informal* or implied Simile.

(a) *Nouns*.—

Our eldest son is the *star* (brightest member) of the family.
He is the *vulture* (plunderer) of the province.
He is now in the *sunset* (decline) of his days.
His rash policy let loose the *hounds* of war.
Hold fast to the *anchor* of faith, hope, and charity.
The news you bring is a *dagger* to my heart.
We must be guided by the *light* of Nature.
The wish is *father* to the thought.

A *ray* of hope ; a *shade* of doubt ; a *flash* of wit ; an *outburst* of temper ; the *fire* of passion ; a *gleam* of delight ; the *light* of knowledge ; a *flight* of fancy ; the *gloom* of despair ; the *wreck* of his hopes ; the *spur* of ambition ; the *torments* of jealousy ; the *reins* of office.

(b) *Adjectives* :—

A *golden* harvest ; a *golden* opportunity ; a *golden* sunset ; *golden* silence ; a *golden* rainfall.

Iron courage, *iron* firmness ; *brazen* impudence ; a *stony* heart ; a *rosy* complexion ; a *lame* excuse ; *snowy* locks.

A *fiery* temper ; *fiery* speech ; *burning* passion ; an *angry* sore ; a *piercing* wind ; a *brilliant* piece of eloquence ; a *stormy* discussion ; a *dead* silence ; a *crystal* stream ; a *transparent* falsehood.

(c) *Verbs* :—

A new thought has suddenly *struck* me.

The town was *stormed* after a long siege.

He was fond of *blowing* his own trumpet (praising himself).

He *swam* bravely against the *stream* of popular applause.

Can't thou not minister to a mind diseased,

Pluck from the memory a *rooted* sorrow !—*Shakespeare*.

495. Personal Metaphors.—A metaphor is said to be personal, when it speaks of inanimate objects as if they were living persons.

(1) Personal epithets applied to impersonal nouns :—

A *treacherous* calm ; a *sullen* sky ; a *frowning* rock ; *pitiless* cold ; *cruel* heat ; a *learned* age ; the *thirsty* ground ; a *virgin* soil.

(2) Personal nouns in connection with impersonal ones :—

The *childhood* of the world ; the *anger* of the tempest ; the *deceitful* riches : wine is a *mocker*.

(3) Personal verbs used as predicates to impersonal subjects :—

Everything *smiled* on him.

Weary wave and *dying* blast

Sob and *moan* along the shore ;

And all is peace at last.

496. Sustained Metaphors.—Sometimes a metaphor is sustained or prolonged through a series of images, all bearing upon some central point of resemblance :—

Let us (since life can little else supply

But just to look about us and to die)

Expatiate free o'er all the scene of man,

A mighty *maze*, but not without a *plan* ;

A *wild*, where *weeds* and *flowers* promiscuous *shoot* ;

A *garden* tempting with *forbidden fruit*.

Together let us beat the ample field,
Try what the *open*, what the *covert* yield;
The *latent* tracks, the *giddy heights* explore
Of those who blindly creep or sightless soar.—*Pope*.

497. *Confused Metaphors*.—Sometimes we find two or more metaphors coming close together in the same sentence. This is a defect in composition.

(1) *I bridle* in my struggling muse with pain,
That longs to *launch* into a bolder *strain*.—*Addison*.

Here, in the first line the poet compares his muse to a horse, and in the second line to a ship and to a musical instrument:—three ideas confused together in a couple of lines.

(2) There is not a single view of human nature, which is not sufficient to *extinguish* the *seeds* of pride.—*Addison*.

Here the writer confuses the idea of extinguishing a flame with that of picking seeds out of the ground.

498. *Constant or Decayed Metaphors*.—Some metaphors have become so well established in popular use, that their metaphorical character is no longer noticed.

Thus we say:—To *employ* means, to *contract* habits, to *carry* a matter to extremes, to *cast* one's eye upon a thing, to *prosecute* studies, to *pass over* in silence, to *ocket* an insult, to *pick* a quarrel, to *curry* favour, to *harbour* malice, to *cultivate* an acquaintance, to *indulge* in hopes, to *strike* the tents, to *strike* a bargain, to *catch* a cold or fever, to *play* the fool, etc. His efforts were *crowned* with success. He *triumphed* over every difficulty. He *stuck* to his point. He was *overwhelmed* with grief. He *plunged* into business.

499. *Fable, Parable, Allegory*.—These are the same at bottom. An Allegory is a series of metaphors or symbols continued *throughout* an entire story so as to represent or describe one series of facts by another series that is analogous to it in its main features.

In most cases the object of such a story is to exemplify and enforce some moral truth.

Thus the Parable of the Good Samaritan (St. Luke's Gospel, chapter x. 30-37) was intended to give an answer to the question:—“Who is my neighbour”?

The Parable of the Ewe Lamb, which Nathan the Prophet communicated to king David (Old Testament, II. Sam. xli.) was intended to bring the king to a sense of his guilt by relating to him a parallel case.

The Fables of classical literature, in which birds and beasts are made to think, speak, and act like men, all teach some moral. The Fable of the Old Man, his Sons.

and the Ass (for example) shows the folly of attempting to please every one. The Fable of the Bundle of Sticks, which the young men could not break so long as they remained tied together, shows the power and value of union.

In English literature the *Pilgrim's Progress*, by Bunyan, is one prolonged allegory, representing by the story of a pilgrim the difficulties and struggles through which the Christian must pass before he can finally reach the land of promise.

The following may be quoted as an example of a short allegory :—

The days of his youth rose up before him in a vision, and he recalled the solemn moment when his father had placed him at the entrance of two roads, one leading into a peaceful, sunny land, covered with a plentiful harvest, and resounding with soft, sweet songs ; the other leading the wanderer into a deep dark cave, whence there was no issue, where poison flowed instead of water, and where serpents hissed and crawled.—*Jean Paul Richter*.

500. Personification.—By this figure we ascribe intelligence and personality to inanimate things (see § 45) :—

But yonder comes the powerful *king* of day,
Rejoicing in the east. The lessening cloud,
 The kindling azure, and the mountain's brow
 Illumed with fluid gold, *his near approach*
Betoken glad.—*Thomsen*.

A lower and less marked kind of personification is seen in such phrases as the following :—The *smiling* morn, the *sullen* sky, the *frowning* rock, the *furious* wave, the *angry* ocean, the *prattling* brook, the *dimppling* waves, the *blushing* rose, the *laughing* harvest, the *raving* tempest, a *happy* period, a *learned* age, the *thirsty* ground, a *melancholy* disaster, the *childhood* of the world, the *remorseless* heat, the *pitiless* cold, an *inexorable* law.

Note 1.—Such expressions as the above are examples of the Personal Metaphor described in § 495 : for a Personal Metaphor necessarily involves some kind of Personification.

Note 2.—On the genders ascribed to personified things, see § 56.

501. Met-on-ym-y, or the substitution of the thing named for the thing meant. (The prefix “*meta*” means substitution ; see page 368).

(a) *The sign for the thing signified.*—

He succeeded to the *crown*=the monarchy.
 He is too fond of *red-tape*=official routine.

From the *cradle* to the *grave*=from childhood to death.

Leather (=shoe-making) pays better than learning.

Gray hairs (=old age or old men) should be respected.

(b) *The instrument for the agent* :—

The *crown* would not yield to the *mitre*. (The king would not yield to the priest.)

Give every man thine *ear*, but few thy *voice*=Pay heed to what every man says, but say little yourself.

The *pen* is stronger than the *sword*=Those who use the pen have more influence than those who use the sword.

(c) *The container for the thing contained* :—

He drank the *cup*=the contents of the cup.

He is too fond of the *bottle*=the liquor contained in the bottle.

The conquerors smote the *city*=the inhabitants of the city.

The *kettle* (=the water in the kettle) boils.

(d) *An effect for a cause, or a cause for an effect* :—

I have never read *Homer*=the works of Homer.

May a favourable *speed* ruffle the mirrored mast of the ship. (Here *speed* is put for *wind*.)—Tennyson.

502. *Syn-ee'-do-che'*; or “the understanding of one thing by means of another.” This figure usually consists in changing one noun for another of kindred meaning.

(a) *A part or species substituted for a whole or genus* :—

He manages to earn his *bread*=the necessities of life.

All *hands* at work, the royal work grows warm.—Dryden.

A fleet of fifty *sail*=fifty ships.

(b) *A whole or genus substituted for a part or species* :—

He is a poor *creature* (that is, man).

In the same way *vessel* is used for ship, a *measure* is used for a dance or for poetry, the smiling *year* for the smiling season or spring, the Christian *world* for the Christian Church as a whole.

(c) *An individual substituted for a class*. Here a Proper noun is used as a Common noun (see § 36) :—

He is the *Nestor* (the oldest man) of his service.

He is the *Newton* (the greatest astronomer) of this century.

A *Daniel* (a very wise judge) come to judgment.—Shakespeare.

(d) *The Concrete substituted for the Abstract*. Here a Common noun denoting a person is used in an Abstract sense (see § 357) :—

There is a mixture of the *tiger* and the *ape* in the character of a Frenchman.—Voltaire.

I do the most that friendship can,

I hate the *Viceroy*, love the *man*.—Swift.

An English muse is touched with generous woe,
And in the unhappy man forgets the *loc.* — Addison.

(e) *The Abstract substituted for the Concrete.* Here an Abstract noun is used as a Common noun (see § 43):—

All the *rank* and *fashion* came out to see the sight.
The *authorities* put an end to the tumult.

The people's *prayer*, the glad diviner's *theme*,
The young men's *vision*, and the old men's *dream*. — Dryden.

The same figure appears in such phrases as — His Majesty for “king,” her ladyship for “lady,” his lordship for “lord,” His Excellency for a governor or viceroy, His Holiness for “Pope,” His Grace for an archbishop.

(f) *The material substituted for the thing made.* Here a Material noun is used as a Common noun (see § 41):—

A foeman worthy of his *steel* = his sword.
The *marble* speaks; that is, the statue made of marble.

He was buried under this *stone* = this tablet made of stone.

503. *Transferred epithets.* — The epithet or qualifying adjective is sometimes transferred from a person to a thing:—

The ploughman homeward plods his *weary* way.
He lay all night on his *sleepless* pillow.
He closed his *busy* life at the age of seventy-six.
The prisoner was placed in the *condemned* cell.
He was engaged in a *dishonest* calling.

Such phrases are common: — A *virtuous* indignation; a *happy* thought; an *unlucky* remark; a *foolish* observation; a *mortal* wound; a *learned* book.

Note. — This is the same figure of speech as the weaker form of Personification referred to in § 500.

504. *Eu-phem'-ism.* — By this figure we speak in gentle and favourable terms of some person, object, or event, which is ordinarily seen in a less pleasing light:—

A partial historian, in speaking of Henry VIII., the second of the Tudors, who divorced two and beheaded two more of the six wives to whom he was married in succession, describes him as having been “*singularly unfortunate in all his relations with women.*”

A sympathetic writer, alluding to the madness of Cowper, describes the event by a series of euphemistic metaphors:—

Discord fell on the music of his soul; the sweet sounds and wandering lights departed from him; yet he wore no less a loving face, although he was so broken-hearted.

505. *Climax.* — This is a Greek word signifying a ladder. By the figure so-called, the sense rises by succes-

sive steps to what is more and more important and impressive:—

It is an *outrage* to *bind* a Roman citizen; to *scourge* him is an *atrocious crime*; to *put him to death* is almost a *parricide*; but to *crucify* him, what shall I call it?

Antielimax or Bathos.—This is the opposite to Climax, and signifies a ludicrous descent from the higher to the lower:—

Here, thou great Anna! whom three realms obey,
Dost sometimes counsel take—and sometimes tea.—*Pope.*
A man so various, that he seemed to be
Not one, but all mankind's epitome;
Who in the course of one revolving moon
Was lawyer, statesman, *fiddler*, and *buffoon*.—*Dryden.*

506. Interrogation.—This is a rhetorical mode of affirming or denying something more strongly and emphatically than could be done in ordinary language:—

Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots?—*Old Testament.*

Oh! was there ever such a knight
In friendship, or in war,
As our sovereign Lord, King Henry,
The soldier of Navarre?—*Macaulay.*

Who is here so base that would be a bondman? Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? Who is here so vile that will not love his country?—*Shakspeare.*

507. Hyperbole or Exaggeration.—By this figure things are represented as greater or less, better or worse, than they really are. Such language (if appropriate at all) is more suited to poetry than to prose:—

David in his lament for Saul and Jonathan says:—“They were swifter than eagles, and stronger than lions.”—*Old Testament.*

The terror of a scout at the sudden appearance of the enemy is thus described in Ossian:—“I saw their chief tall as a *rock of ice*; his spear, *the blasted fir*; his shield, *the rising moon*; he sat on the shore, *like a cloud of mist on the hill*.”—*Ossian.*

The sky shrunk upward with unusual dread,
And trembling Tiber dived beneath his bed.—*Dryden.*

508. Exclamation or the strong expression of feeling:—

O what a fall was there, my countrymen!
Then I and you and all of us fell down,
Whilst bloody treason flourished over us.—*Shakspeare.*

509. An-*ti*-*the*-*sis*, or “the setting of one thing against

another."—This figure consists in an *explicit* statement of an *implied* contrast:—

A bird in the *hand* is worth two in the *bush*.—*Proverb*.

He can *bribe*, but he cannot *seduce*; he can *buy*, but he cannot *gain*; he can *lie*, but he cannot *deceive*.

A friend exaggerates a man's *virtues*, an *enemy* his *crimes*.

Between fame and true honour there is much difference; the former is a *blind* and *noisy applause*; the latter is an *internal* and *more silent homage*.

As Caesar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I honour him; but as he was ambitious, I slew him. There is tears for his love; joy for his fortune; honour for his valour; and death for his ambition.—*Shakspeare*.

Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull;
Strong without rage; without o'erflowing full.—*Denham*.

510. Epigram.—This figure is closely allied to Antithesis. It couples words which *apparently* contradict each other. The language of epigram is remarkable for its brevity.

The *child* is *father* of the man.—*Wordsworth*.

By *merit* raised to that *bad* eminence.—*Milton*.

Language is the art of *concealing* thought.—*Rocheſoucauld*.

Natural beauty, when *unadorned*, is *adorned* the most.—*Thomson*.

Conspicuous by its *absence*.—*Disraeli*.

In the midst of *life* we are in *death*.—*Proverb*.

He lived a life of *active idleness*.

'Tis all thy *business*, *business* how to shun.—*Pope*.

Art lies in concealing *art*.—*Latin Proverb*.

Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
(That last *infirmity* of *noble* minds)

To scorn delights and live laborious days.—*Milton*.

Ambition first sprung from your blest abodes,

The *glorious fault* of angels and of gods.—*Pope*.

He who lives *without folly* is not so *wise* as he imagines.—*Proverb*.

Affected *simplicity* is refined *artfulness*.—*Proverb*.

Defend me from my *friends*.

Silence is sometimes more *eloquent* than words.

Owe no man anything but to love one another.—*New Testament*.

Murder, though it have no *tongue*, will yet *speak*.

A rule more *honoured* in the *breach* than in the *observance*.

Great wits will sometimes *gloriously offend*,

And *rise to faults* which critics dare not mend.—*Pope*.

The following phrases, all of common occurrence, can be classed under the heading of epigrammatic:—*While lie, solemn trifling, a silent rebuke, masterly inactivity, an open secret, a tedious amusement, a pious fraud, noble revenge, expressive silence, shabby genteel*.

511. **Pun.**—This consists in a play on the various meanings of a word, and is seldom used except for jest:—

Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard its spots?

Yes; the leopard changes its spots, whenever it goes from one spot to another.

512. **Irony, or Sarcasm.**—This figure consists in making damaging remarks about some person or thing, in words, which, if they were taken literally, would imply commendation. It is expected, however, that their intended meaning will be understood from the sneering accent or manner of the speaker, or from the well-known character of the person or thing referred to:—

An argument to prove that the abolition of Christianity may, as things now stand, be attended with some inconveniences, and perhaps not produce the many good effects proposed thereby.—*Swift.*

When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept.
Ambition should be made of sterner stuff;
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious,
And Brutus is an *honourable man*.—*Shakspeare.*

513. **Litotes:** the use of a negative before some other word, to indicate a strong affirmative in the opposite direction:—

He is *no dullard* (=decidedly clever).

A citizen of *no mean* (=a distinguished) city.

Note.—By this figure such words as “infamous,” “unprofessional,” “unchristian,” all of which have merely negative prefixes, are used in a strongly affirmative sense. (See § 474, under “non.”)

514. **Apostrophe.**—By this figure the speaker *addresses* some inanimate thing or some abstract idea as if it were a living person, or some absent person as if he were present.

It therefore includes Personification, besides possessing the peculiar property of *address*:—

Hast thou a charm to stay the morning-star
In his steep course? so long he seems to pause
On thy bold awful head, O Sovran Blanc!—*Coleridge.*

How are the mighty fallen in the midst of the battle! O Jonathan,
thou wast slain in the high places. I am distressed for thee, my
brother Jonathan! very pleasant hast thou been to me; thy
love to me was wonderful.—*Old Testament.*

O Luxury! thou curst by heaven's decree,
How ill exchanged are joys like these to thee!—*Goldsmith.*

515. **Pros-o'-po-pæ-ia.**—By this figure the writer or speaker, in relating something past, or in describing some

anticipated future, employs the *present* tense instead of the *past* or *future*, and thus makes it appear as if the event were actually passing before his eyes. Hence this figure is sometimes called Vision.

(a) *Some anticipated future* :—

I seem to behold this great city, the ornament of the earth and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens lying unburied in the midst of the ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while with a savage joy he is triumphing in your miseries.—*Cicero*.

(b) *Some past event*.—This is called the Historic Present (see § 374, c) :—

The sack and carnage of Delhi lasted from three o'clock in the morning until three in the afternoon. The streets echo with the shouts of brutal soldiery, and with the cries and shrieks of the inhabitants. The atmosphere reeks with blood. Houses are set on fire, and hundreds perish in the flames. Husbands kill their wives, and then destroy themselves. Women throw themselves into the wells. Children are slaughtered without mercy, and infants are cut to pieces at their mothers' breasts.—*Wheeler's India*.

516. Alliteration.—This consists in the repetition of the same letter or syllable at the beginning of two or more words :—

By apt Alliteration's artful aid.—*Pope*.

Ruin seize thee, ruthless king!—*Gray*.

A strong man struggling with the storms of fate.—*Addison*.

His heavy-shotted hammock-shroud.—*Tennyson*.

Glittering through the gloomy glades.—*Pope*.

A load of learning lumbering in his head.—*Pope*.

517. On-om'-a-to-poe-ia.—This is the name given to that artifice of language, by which the sound of the words is made to suggest or echo the sense :—

(1) *Rend with tremendous sound your ears asunder*

With gun, drum, trumpet, blunderbuss, and thunder.

Here the vowel-sounds in the second line suggest the idea of a loud and thundering noise.

(2) *A needless Alexandrine ends the song,*

Which like a wounded snake drags its slow length along.

An Alexandrine is a line of twelve syllables. The tedious length of this line suggests the slowness of a needless Alexandrine or the slow crawling of a wounded snake.

(3) The tallest pines,
Though rooted deep as high, and sturdiest oaks
Bowed their stiff necks, loaded with stormy blasts,
Or torn up sheer.—*Milton.*

The stiffness of the third line suggests the stiffness with which the trees resisted the storm ; while the lightness of the fourth suggests the suddenness with which a tree is torn up by the roots.

(4) When Ajax strives some rock's vast weight to throw,
The line too labours, and the words move slow.—*Pope.*

The labour of reading the first of these two lines suggests the labour with which a rock is hurled.

(5) Eternal wrath
Burnt after them to the bottomless pit.—*Milton.*

Here the sudden drop of the accentuation at the close of the second line, where an accent is indispensable to the metre, suggests the sudden and precipitate fall of the rebellious angels from heaven to hell.

518. Periphrasis, or Circumlocution.—This consists in expressing some fact or idea in a roundabout way, instead of stating it at once. Euphemism (see § 504) often takes the form of Periphrasis.

The viewless couriers of the air=the winds.—*Shakspeare.*
That statement of his was purely *an effort of imagination*=a fiction or falsehood.

He resembled the animal that browses on thistles=an ass.
His prominent feature (=his nose) was like an eagle's beak.

519. Tautology, or Pleonasm.—This consists in repeating the same fact or idea in different words. Such redundancy is almost always a fault in composition ; but is lawful, when it adds force, clearness, or balance to a sentence.

I rejoiced at the happy sight.
It is the *privilege* and *birthright* of every citizen in a free commonwealth to be allowed to have a voice in public affairs.

CHAPTER XXIX.—POETRY, PROSODY, AND METRE

§ 1. THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF POETRY

520. Pastoral.—This kind of poetry deals with anything that concerns the life of shepherds, herdsmen, and husbandmen. Such poems are usually in the form of a dialogue or a monologue.

Spenser's *Shepherd's Calendar* (A.D. 1552-1599). Pope's *Pastorals* (1688-1744). Collins's *Eclogues* (1721-1759). Shenstone's *Pastorals* (1714-1763).

521. Descriptive.—This kind of poetry describes the seasons of the year, scenes of historical interest, cities, places, countries, etc., and gives expression to the thoughts suggested by the various scenes and objects as they arise. Descriptive poetry does not usually narrate events. If narrative is sometimes introduced, this is done by way of episode or for the sake of variety.

Drayton's *Polyolbion* (1563-1631). Goldsmith's *Traveller* and *Deserted Village* (1728-1774). Parnell's *Hermit* (1679-1718). Crabbe's *The Village* and other poems (1754-1832). Rogers' *Italy* (1763-1855). Byron's *Childe Harold* (1788-1824).

522. Narrative.—In this (as the name implies) narrative is the chief aim, and description is merely subsidiary. Poems of this character may be roughly classified under three headings:—

(a) Epic or Heroic, dealing with one great, complex action, in a lofty style, and in fulness of detail:—

Milton's *Paradise Lost* (1608-1674). Dryden's *Aeneid*, translated from Virgil (1631-1700). Pope's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, translated from Homer. Southey's *Joan of Arc*, *Roderick*, and other poems (1774-1843). Keats's *Endymion* and *Hyperion* (1795-1821).

(b) Romance, Legend, or Tale, a lighter and shorter kind of narrative poetry than the Epic:—

Pope's *Rape of the Lock* (a kind of mock Epic). Thomson's *Castle of Indolence*. Scott's *Lady of the Lake*, *Marmion*, and other poems (1771-1832). Moore's *Lalla Rookh* (1779-1852). Byron's *Siege of Corinth* and other poems. Campbell's *Gertrude of Wyoming*. Tennyson's *Idylls of the King*. Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome*. Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner* (1772-1834).

(c) Ballads.—This is the lightest and shortest form of narrative poetry. It deals with short anecdotes, local legends, etc., and tells them in the simplest language and in a light metre:—

Sidney's *Chevy Chase*. Cowper's *John Gilpin*. Wordsworth's *Lyrical Ballads* (1770-1850). Southey's *Ballads of the Rhine*. Scott's *Border Minstrelsy*.

523. Reflective.—Poems of this character may be roughly classified under two headings:—

(a) Longer poems, as below:—

Young's *Night Thoughts* (1684-1765). Akenside's *Pleasures of Imagination* (1721-1770). Cowper's *Task*, *Table-talk*, *Conversa-*

tion, Retirement, etc. Johnson's *Vanity of Human Wishes*. Campbell's *Pleasures of Hope* (1777-1844). Tennyson's *In Memoriam*. Wordsworth's *Excursion* (1790-1850).

(b) Elegiac poems, always of a serious, and frequently of a plaintive, character:—

Milton's *Lycidas*. Gray's *Elegy written in a Country Churchyard* (1716-1771). Cowper's *Wreck of the Royal George*, and *Lines on Receipt of his Mother's Picture*. Shelley's *Adonais* (1792-1822). Wolfe's *Burial of Sir John Moore* (1791-1823). Southey's *Holly Tree*.

524. Dramatic, or the poetry of the stage:—

Shakspeare's Plays, subdivided into Tragedies, Comedies, and Histories (1564-1616). Ben Jonson's Plays. Addison's *Cato* (1672-1719). Goldsmith's *She Stoops to Conquer*. Byron's *Sardanapalus*, *Manfred*, and other dramas. Tennyson's *Becket*, etc.

Under the head of dramatic we must include poems which have been written in the form of a drama, but were not intended to be acted:—

Milton's *Comus* and *Samson Agonistes*. Taylor's *Philip Van Artevelde*, and other poems. George Eliot's *Spanish Gypsy*.

525. Lyrical.—Short poems written in a rapid and irregular metre, fit to be sung or recited. Such poems are often called odes. They are of a much higher order than "ballads," and may be either descriptive or narrative.

Milton's *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*. Dryden's *Ode on Alexander's Feast*. Pope's *Ode on St. Cecilia's Day*. Thomson's *Rule Britannia*. Gray's *The Bard*, *The Progress of Poesy*, *On the Prospect of Eton*. Collins's *Ode to Evening*, *Ode on the Passions*. Cowper's *Ode on Queen Boadicea*. Campbell's *Hohenlinden*, *The Battle of the Baltic*, *Ye Mariners of England*. Moore's *Irish Melodies*. Keats's *Ode to a Nightingale*, *Ode to Autumn*, *On a Grecian Urn*, etc. Shelley's *The Cloud*, *Ode to a Skylark*, etc. Tennyson's *Ode on the Duke of Wellington*.

526. Didactic.—Instruction given in verse:—

Dryden's *Hind and Panther* and *Religio Laici*. Pope's *Essay on Criticism*, *Essay on Man*, *Moral Essays*. Armstrong's *Art of Preserving Health*. Somerville's *Chace* (1692-1742).

527. Satire.—Censures the faults of individuals or communities. The style may be jocose or serious.

Butler's *Hudibras* (1612-1680). Dryden's *Absalom and Achitophel*. Pope's *Dunciad*.

§ 2. PROSODY OR THE LAWS OF METRE.

528. Prosody is that part of grammar which treats of the laws of metre or versification.

529. Versification depends upon two main factors :—

(a) The accentuation of syllables.

(b) The number of accented syllables to a line.

530. A specific combination of accented and unaccented syllables is called a *foot*. The number of syllables to a foot may be either two or three, but it cannot be less than two or more than three.

This gives rise to four different kinds of feet—Iambus, Trochee, Anapæst, and Dactyl :—

(a) An *Iambus* consists of one unaccented syllable followed by an accented one ; as,

Ap-pear', be-sides', at-tack', sup-ply'.

(b) A *Trochee* consists of one accented syllable followed by an unaccented one ; as,

Ho'-ly, up'-per, grand'-eur, fail'-ing.

(c) An *Anapæst* consists of two unaccented syllables followed by an accented one ; as,

Col-on-nade', re-ap-pear', on a hill'.

(d) A *Dactyl* consists of one accented syllable, followed by two unaccented ones ; as,

Mes'-sen-ger, mer'-ri-ly, prop'-er-ty, in'-fa-mous.

531. To *scan* a line is to divide it into its several feet, and say *what kind* of feet they are and *how many* of them there are in the line.

Note.—A line consisting of a fixed number of feet may have a rhyming syllable at the end of them ; but this additional syllable does not count as a separate foot.

Shep'-herds | all' and | maid'-ens | fair,

'Fold' your | flocks' up ; | for' the | air

'Gins to | thick'-en, | and' the | sun

His' great | course' has | near'-ly | run.

Here we have four trochaic lines, each of which consists of three feet with a rhyming syllable at the end.

532. In scanning a line two short syllables coming together are often pronounced as if they were one for the sake of the metre.

Wing'd with | red.light'- | ning and | impet'- | uous rage.
 Hovering | and blaz'- | ing with' | delu'- | sive light.
 The mul'- | titud'- | inous sea' | incarn'- | adine.
 Slides in'- | effect'- | ual down' | the snow'- | y vale.

Sometimes, in order to reduce two syllables to one, a consonant or even a whole syllable is omitted. Thus we have *ea'n* for *even*, *ta'en* for *taken*, *e'er* for *ever*, *'gan* for *began*, *'tis* for *it is*, *'twas* for *it was*, *we'll* for *we will*, *e'er* for *ever*, *'neath* for *beneath*, *'twixt* for *betwixt*, etc.

When two vowel sounds belonging to different words come together, they are often slurred over and pronounced as one.

Impressed' | the efful'- | gence of' | his glo'- | ry abides.
 By her'- | ald's voice | explained ; | the hol'- | low abyss.
 Abom'- | ina'- | ble, unut'- | tera'- | ble, and worse'.
 To insult' | the poor' | or bean'- | ty in' | distress.
 May I | express' | thee unblamed, | since God' | is light ?

Iambic Metre.

533. The Iambic metre is the prevailing measure or metre in English poetry, and is more extensively used than any other.

The number of Iambic feet in an Iambic line may vary from two to seven.

534. *Two feet* ; or four syllables:—

- (1) With rav'- | ished ears'
 The mon'- | arch hears,
 As-sumes' | the God',
 Af-fects' | to nod',
 And seems' to shake' the spheres'.—*Dryden*.
- (2) In woods' | a rang'er,
 To joy' | a strang'er.

535. *Three feet*, or the trimeter ; six syllables :—

- (1) Thy way', | not mine', | O Lord',
 Howev'- | er dark' | it be' ;
 Lead me' | by thine' | own hand',
 Choose out' | the path' | for me'.
- (2) Alive' | to ev'- | ery feel'-ing,
 The wounds' | of sor'- | row heal'-ing.

536. *Four feet*, or the tetrameter ; eight syllables :—

The way' | was long', | the night' | was cold',
 The min'- | strel was' | infirm' | and eld' ;
 The harp', | his sole' | remain'- | ing joy',
 Was car'- | ried by' | an or'- | phan boy'.—*Scott*.

Note.—An Iambic trimeter may alternate with an Iambic tetrameter :—

Confu'- | sion, shame'; | remorse' | despair',
 At once' | his bos'- | om swell' ;

The damps' | of death' | beewed' | his brow';
 He shook', | he groaned', | he fell'.

537. *Five feet*, or the pentameter; ten syllables. This is the most dignified measure in English verse; and is much used in Epic and Dramatic poetry.

It may be used either with rhyme or in blank (that is, unrhymed) verse.

(a) *With rhyme*.

The rhythmical form in which this metre has been most used is the celebrated Heroic couplet:—

There was' | a time', | when *Æt'* | na's si'- | lent fire'
 Slept un'- | perceived', | the moun'- | tain yet' | entire';
 When con'- | scious of' | no dan'- | ger from' | below'
 She topped' | a cloud'- | capt pyr'- | amid' | of snow'.—*Couper*.

In Elegiac poetry the rhyming lines of the Iambic pentameter often occur alternately:—

The eur'- | few tolls' | the knell' | of part'- | ing day',
 The low'- | ing herd' | winds slow'- | ly o'er | the lea',
 The plough'- | man home'- | ward plods' | his wear'- | y way'
 And leaves' | the world' | to dark'- | ness and' | to me'.
 —*Gray's Elegy*.

(b) *In blank verse*.

Now stir' | the fire' | and close' | the shut'- | ters fast,
 Let fall' | the eur'- | tains, wheel' | the so'- | fa round';
 And while' | the bub'- | bling and' | loud his'- | sing urn'
 Throws np' | a steam'- | y col'- | umn, and' | the cups'
 'hat cheer' | but not' | ine'- | briate wait' | on each,
 So let' | us wel'- | come peace'- | ful eve'- | ning in'.—*Couper*.

Note.—The blank verse pentameter is the metre of Milton's *Paradise Lost* and of all the best dramatic poetry.

538. *Six feet*, or the hexameter: twelve syllables. This is never seen in the form of blank verse.

This kind of line is often seen as the last line of an Heroic triplet, or of a Spenserian stanza (for which see § 547). Such a line is called an "Alexandrine."

The sa'- | cred lake' | of Triv'- | ia from' | afar,
 The Ve' | line foun'- | tains and' | sulphur'- | eous Nar',
 Shake at' | the bale'- | ful blast', | the sig'- | nal of' | the war.

539. *Seven feet*, or the Heptameter: fourteen syllables:—

Attend' | all ye' | who wish' | to hear' | our no'- | ble Eng'- | land's
 praise,

I sing' | of the' | thrice fa'- | mous deeds' | she wrought' | in an'- |
 cient days,

When that' | great fleet' | invin'- | cible' | against' | her bore' | in
vain
The rich'- | est spoils' | of Mex'- | ico', | the stout'- | est hearts' | of
Spain.

This metre, however, can be and often is subdivided into stanzas like the following, in which an Iambic line of four feet is followed alternately by another of three feet. This is much used in Ballad poetry.

Attend' | all ye' | who wish' | to hear'
Our no'- | ble Eng'- | land's praise;
I sing' | of the' | thrice fa'- | mous deeds'
She wrought' | in an'- | cient days,
When that' | great fleet' | invin'- | cible'
Against' | her bore' | in vain
The rich'- | est spoils' | of Mex' | ico',
The stout'- | est hearts' | of Spain.

540. The Iambic metre is not always perfectly carried out; that is, the alternation of an unaccented syllable with an accented one is not regularly observed.

(a) The first foot is often a Trochee instead of an Iambus:—

Daughter | of God' | and man', | accom'- | plished Eve.

(b) Sometimes two long or accented syllables come together instead of a short and long. Such a foot is called a *Spondee*; but this is not one of the feet recognised in English poetry. It is rather a deviation from the Iambus or Trochee.

(c) Sometimes the first foot of an Iambic line consists of a monosyllable, in contravention of the rule stated in § 530, that a foot cannot have less than two syllables:—

Stay', | the king' | hath thrown' | his war'- | der down.—*Shakspeare*.
Weigh' | the ves'- | sel up'
Once dread'- | ed by' | our foes,
And min'- | gle with' | our cup
The tear | that Eng'- | land owes.—*Cowper*.

The Trochaic Metre.

541. In a Trochaic line the *first*, *third*, and other *odd* syllables are accented. The line (as in the Iambic metre) may be of various lengths.

(a) *One foot*, followed by a rhyming syllable:—

Dread'-ful | gleams,
Dis'-mal | screams.

Fires' that | glow,
Shrieks' of | woe,
Sul'-len | moans,
Hol'-low | groans.—*Pope*.

(b) *Two feet*, the last of which rhymes with the line following:—

Rich' the | treas'-ure,
Sweet' the | plea'-sure.—*Dryden*.

(c) *Three feet*.—This kind of Trochaic line is seen in two different forms. Either there is a rhyming syllable that comes after the third foot: or the third foot itself rhymes with the third Trochee in the line following.

First form.—This is the most common form of Trochaic verse:—

When' the | Brit'-ish | war'rior | queen,
Bleed'-ing | from' the | Ro'-man | rods,
Sought' with | an' in- | dig'-nant | mien
Coun'sel | of' her | coun'-try's | gods.

Second form:—

Now' they | stood' con- | found'-ed,
While' the | bat'tle | sound'-ed.

(d) *Four feet*.—Four feet, the last of which rhymes with the line following. This is uncommon.

May', thou | month' of | ro'-sy | beau'-ty,
Month' when | pleas'-ure | is' a | du'-ty,
Month' of | bees' and | month' of | flow'-ers,
Month' of | blos'-som- | la'-den | bow'-ers.

A four-footed Trochaic line like the above can be alternated with a three-footed Trochaic line ending in a rhyming syllable. This kind of stanza is not at all uncommon.

Tell' me | not' in | mourn'-ful | num'-bers
Life' is | but' an | emp'-ty | dream;
For' the | soul' is | dead' that | slum'-bers,
And' things | are' not | what' they | seem.—*Longfellow*.

(e) *Five feet*.—This is uncommon.

All' that | walk' on | foot' or | ride' in | char'-iots,
All' that | dwell' in | pal'-a- | ces' or | gar'-rets.

(f) *Six feet*.—This too is uncommon.

On' a | moun'-tain | stretched' be | neath' a | hoar'-y | wil'-low
Lay' a | shep'-herd | swain' and | viewed' the | rol'-ling | bil'-low.

The Anapæstic Metre.

542. In an Anapæstic line the accent falls on the third, sixth, and ninth syllables. The first two syllables, and

those coming between the third and sixth, and between the sixth and ninth are unaccented.

(a) *One foot*; three syllables. Very uncommon.

'Tis in vain'
They complain'.

(b) *Two feet*; six syllables. Not common.

- (1) All our la'- | bours must fail',
If the wick'- | ed prevail'.
- (2) In my rage' | shall be seen'
The revenge' | of a queen'.
- (3) In the cave' | of the moun'-tain
By the side' | of the foun'-tain.

(c) *Three feet*; nine syllables. This is the most common form of anapaestic verse.

I am mon'- | arch of all' | I survey',
My right' | there is none' | to dispute';
From the cen'- | tre all round' | to the sea'
I am lord' | of the bird' | and the brute'.—*Cowper*.

Note.—Observe that in the first foot of the second line an Iambus ("my right") has been given for an Anapaest. This is very common in the anapaestic metre.

In the following stanza an Iambus is substituted for an Anapaest in three lines out of four:—

How fleet' | is the glance' | of the mind'
Com-pared' | with the speed' | of its flight'!
The tem'- | pest itself' | lags be-hind',
And the swift'- | winged ar'- | rows of light'.

(d) *Four feet*; twelve syllables.

The Assyr'- | ian came down' | like a wolf' | on the fold',
And his co'- | horts were gleam'- | ing in pur'- | ple and gold';
And the sheen' | of their spears' | was like stars' | on the sea',
When the blue' | wave rolls night'- | ly on deep' | Galilee.'

Note.—In the four-footed or tetrameter verse, an Iambic foot is often substituted for an Anapaest:—

Not a drum' | was heard', | not a fu'- | neral note',
As his corpse' | to the ram'- | parts we hur'-ried;
Not a sol'- | dier discharged' | his fare'- | well shot'
O'er the grave' | where our he'- | ro we bur'-ied.

Here the second foot of the first line, and the third and fourth feet of the third line, are all Iambics.

Observe, too, that in the above stanza a trimeter line alternates with a tetrameter.

The Dactylic Metre.

543. This is very uncommon. A Dactyl is the converse of an Anapaest; hence in a dactylic line the first and fourth syllables are accented.

Mer'-rily | mer'-rily | shall' I live | now
Un'-der the | blos'-som that | hangs' on the | bough.

—Shakespeare.

§ 3. Special Metres.

544. The Heroic Couplet.—In this metre the lines rhyme together in pairs, and each line consists of five Iambic feet (see example, quoted in § 537, a).

This is called "Heroic" because it has been much used in translating Epic or Heroic poetry; as in Dryden's translation of Virgil, and Pope's translation of Homer.

545. The Sonnet.—Each line consists of five Iambic feet; and the number of lines to a sonnet is fourteen. The first eight are called the *Octave*; the last six the *Sestette*. The former has two, and sometimes four rhymes. The latter has two, and sometimes three.

The subject of a sonnet is usually either reflective or amatory.

546. Ottava Rima.—This is a stanza consisting of eight lines, and was borrowed from Italy. It begins with six Heroic couplets which rhyme three and three alternately, and ends with a couplet.

"Tis sweet to hear the watch-dog's honest bark
Bay deep-mouthed walcome as we near our home ;
"Tis sweet to know there is an eye will mark
Our coming, and look brighter when we come ;
"Tis sweet to be awakened by the lark,
Or lulled by falling waters ; sweet the hum
Of bees, the voice of girls, the song of birds,
The lisp of children and their earliest words.—Byron.

547. The Spenserian Stanza.—This is called Spenserian from its originator, the poet Spenser, who used it in composing his great allegorical poem *The Faery Queen*. It has since come into very general use.

Roll on', | thou deep' | and dark'- | blue O'- | cean, roll,
Ten thou' | sand' fleets' | sweep o'- | ver thee' | in vain :
Man marks' | the earth' | with ru'- | in ; his' | control
Stops with' | the shore' ; | upon' | the wa'- | tery main
The wrecks' | are all' | thy deed ; | nor doth' | remain
A shad'- | ow of' | man's rav'- | age save' | his own,
When for' | a mo'- | ment like' | a drop' | of rain
He sinks' | into' | thy depths' | with bub'- | bling groan,
Without' | a grave', | unkswelled', | uncof'- | fined, and' | unknown.
—Byron.

The student will see (a) that the first eight lines are all pentameters or lines in five iambic feet; (b) that the first and third lines rhyme together; then the second, fourth, fifth, and seventh; then the sixth, eighth, and ninth; and (c) that the ninth line is an Alexandrine, or line consisting of six iambic feet.

CHAPTER XXX.—POETIC DICTION

548. Poetry is distinguished from prose not only by metre, but by diction or the choice of words and constructions.

549. Metre, without poetical diction, does not make poetry. The following is a specimen of the most prosaic language put together in the most perfect form of metre and rhyme:—

Something had happened wrong about a bill,
Which was not drawn with sound commercial skill;
So, to amend it, I was told to go
And seek the firm of Clutterbuck and Co.—*Crabbe.*

550. The chief peculiarities of poetic as distinct from prose diction are shown below:—

I. **The use of archaic or less common words.**—This arises from the fact that poetry pays little or no attention to changes in the colloquial or spoken language, and hence it retains words, which were used by former poets, after they have gone out of common use.

Nouns.—Poetry generally uses *saxine* for *pigs*; *swain* for *peasant* or *husbandman*; *billow* for *wave*; *main* for *sea* or *ocean*; *maid* or *damsel* for *girl*; *nuptials* for *marriage*; *vale* for *valley*; *steed* or *charger* for *horse*; *ire* for *anger*; *woe* for *sorrow* or *misery*; *thrall* for *distress*; *might* for *strength*; *marge* for *margin*; *spouse* for *wife*; *numbers* for *verse* or *metre*; *bower* for *summer-house*; *quest* for *search*; *guile* for *deceit*; *bliss* for *happiness*; *bane* for *poison* or *mischief*; *ken* for *perception*; *troth* for *veracity* or *faithfulness*; *chanticleer* for *cock*; *combat* for *battle*; *goblet* for *cup*; *aught* for *anything*; *naught* for *nothing*; *eve* for *evening*; *meed* for *reward*; *morn* for *morning*; *meed* for *meadows*; *realm* for *kingdom*; *scribe* for *writer*; *victor* for *conqueror*; *foe* or *foeman* for *enemy*; *yoeman* for *peasant* or *husbandman*; *tith* for *tillage* or *agriculture*, etc.

Adjectives.—Poetry often uses *lone* or *lonesome* for *lonely*; *drear* for *dreary*; *dread* for *dreadful*; *lovesome* for *lovely*; *intrepid* or *darunlike* for *brave*; *yon* for *yonder*; *rapt* for *delighted*; *hallowed* for *holy*; *baful* for *pernicious*; *doleful* for *sorrowful*; *artless* for

innocent ; hapless for unlucky ; lowly for low or humble ; forlorn for distressed ; sylvan for woody ; sequestered for retired ; joyless for unhappy ; jocund for merry ; a weary for weary ; stillly for still ; reckless for careless ; bootless for unprofitable ; ingrate for ungrateful ; recreant for unfaithful ; mute for silent ; darksome for dark ; quenchless for inextinguishable ; fond for foolish ; wrathful for angry ; dire for dreadful, etc.

Adverbs.—Poetry often uses *scarce* for *scarcely* ; *haply* for *perhaps* ; *sore* for *sorely* ; *oft* for *often* ; *erst* or *wilom* for *formerly* ; *of yore* or *of old* for *in ancient times* ; *scantily* for *scantily* ; *anon* for *at once* ; *amain* for *violently* or *suddenly* ; *hard by* for *close* or *very near* ; *full* for *very*, as in “*full many a gem*,” etc. ; *right* for *very*, or *precisely*, as in “*right against the eastern gate*.”

Verbs.—Poetry often uses *quit* for *leave* ; *wax* for *grow* ; *quoth* for *said* ; *list* for *listen* ; *sojourn* for *lodge* or *dwell* ; *trow* for *believe* ; *tarry* for *remain* or *stay* ; *hearken* for *hear* or *attend* ; *obscure* for *darken* ; *fare* for *walk* ; *vanquish* for *conquer* ; *quaff* for *drink luxuriously* ; *cleave* for *stick* ; *hie* or *speed* for *hasten* ; *smite* for *hit* or *strike*. *Est* and *eth* are still commonly used for the second and third persons respectively. The older or Strong forms of past tenses are used in preference to the modern or Weak ones ; as *wrought* for *worked* ; *bade* for *bid* ; *begat* for *begot* ; *clove* for *cleft* ; *crew* for *crowed* ; *drave* for *drove* ; *throve* for *thrived* ; *clomb* for *climbed* ; *stöve* for *staved* ; *clad* for *clothed*. Chap. v., § 12.

Conjunctions.—Poetry often uses *what though* or *albeit* for *although* ; *ere* or *or ere* for *before* ; *nathless* for *nevertheless* ; *an if* for *if*.

II. Omission of various Parts of Speech.—In the examples given below the omitted word is shown in brackets ; such omissions are made chiefly for the sake of metre.

The brink of (the) haunted stream	Article.
Creeping like (a) snail unwillingly to school	
(He) who steals my purse steals trash	Noun or Pronoun.
Lives there (the man) who loves his pain ?	
For is there ought in sleep (that) can charm the wise ?	Relative as Subject to a Verb.
Tis distance (that) lends enchantment to the viēw	
Mean though I am, (I am) not wholly so	
Happy (is) the man, whose wish and care, etc.	Finite Verb.
To whom thus Adam (spoke)	
Soldier rest, thy warfare (being) o'er, etc.	Participle.
My ramble (being) ended, I returned	
He knew himself (how) to sing	
Permit (that) I marshal thee the way	Conjunction.
He mourned (for) no recreant friend	
Through the dear might of Him that walked (on) the waves	
Despair and anguish fled (from) the struggling soul	Preposition.

In poetry a verb is often used alone, where in prose it would have an auxiliary verb attached to it.

Long *die* thy happy days before thy death!

(*May* thy happy days die, etc.)

This day *be* bread and peace my lot!

(*May* peace and bread be, etc.)

Gives not the hawthorn bush as sweet a shade?

(*Does* it not *give*, etc.)

Tell me not in mournful numbers,

(*Do* not tell me, etc.)

He goes to do what I *had done*, if, etc.

(*What* I *should have done*, if, etc.)

III. The use of uncommon constructions.

(a) An Adjective substituted for an adverb to qualify a verb (see above, p. 276):—

First they praised him *soft* and *low*.—*Tennyson*.

The green trees whispered *low* and *mild*.—*Longfellow*.

Note.—Sometimes an Adjective is coupled with an Adverb:—

Trip it *deft* and *merrily*.—*Scott*.

(b) The use of the Imperative in the first or third person. In older English this was not so uncommon; in modern it is seldom seen except in poetry (see § 180, note):—

Thither our path lies; wind *we* up the height.—*Browning*.

“Now rest *we* here,” Matilda said.—*Scott*.

(c) The formation of Comparative adverbs by changing “ly” into “lier.” This is never done in prose, and rarely even in poetry.

You have taken it *wiselier* than I meant you should.—*Shakspeare*.

Destroyers *rightilier* called the plagues of men.—*Milton*.

Strange friend, past, present, and to be;

Loved *deeperlier*, *darklier* understood.—*Tennyson*.

Note.—This form of the Comparative adverb occurs, however, in the familiar word “earlier,” which can be either an adverb or an adjective.

(d) The employment of a pronoun as well as a noun for the same verb. This is rather common in poetry.

My banks—*they* are furnished with bees.—*Shenstone*.

They tremble—the sustaining crags.—*Tennyson*.

The smith a mighty man is *he*.—*Longfellow*.

Tired nature’s sweet restorer, balmy sleep,

He, like the world, his ready visit pays.

Where fortune smiles.—*Young*.

(e) The substitution of an epithet (adjective) for the noun or thing qualified by it:—

Below the chestnuts, when their buds
Were glistening to the breezy *blue* (=sky).—*Tennyson*.
The dread *vast* (=expanse) of night.—*Milton*.
The palpable *obscure* (=darkness)—*Milton*.
The kindling *azure* (=sky).—*Thomson*.
From *grave* to *gay*, from *lively* to *severe*.—*Pope*.

(f) The formation of new compound words:—

Hast thou not heard
That haughty Spain's *pope-consecrated* fleet
Advances to our shores.—*Sheridan*.
The *always-wind-olecying* deep.—*Shakspeare*.
With rocks *unscalable*, and roaring waters.—*Shakspeare*.
Or in the *violet-embroidered* vale.—*Milton*.

(g) A freer use of impersonal verbs for personal ones; as *methinks* for *I think*; *melists* for *it seems to me*; *meseeems* for *it seems to me*.

(h) A freer use of Personal or Reflexive pronouns after Intransitive verbs (see § 155 and § 340, Note 2):—

Then Satan first knew pain,
And *writhe* him to and fro.—*Milton*.
The shepherd *hied* him home.

(i) The use of the Superlative degree as a substitute for the Positive degree preceded by “very” :—

Or where the gorgeous east with *richest* hand
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold.—*Milton*.

(j) The substitution of a Possessive noun for an adjective:—

Pity and *woman's* (=womanly) compassion.—*Longfellow*.
The *mother's* (=motherly) nature of Althea.—*Lowell*.

(k) The use of a Personal pronoun, where in prose a Reflexive would be used:—

I thought *me* (=myself) richer than the Persian king.
—*Ben Jonson*.
How close she veils *her* (=herself) round.—*Keble*.

(l) The use of “and” in an Interrogative sentence, to express a passionate sense of grief:—

And art thou cold and lowly laid.—*Scott*.
And wilt thou weep, when I am low!—*Byron*.

IV. A change in the regular order of words.

(a) By placing the adjective after its noun :—

Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
Shows on her kings *barbaric* pearl and gold.—*Milton*.

Here *barbaric* is intended to qualify "kings," and not "pearl."

(b) By placing the verb before its subject :—

Roar the mountains, *thunders* all the ground.

Again *returned* the scenes of youth.

As *shines* the moon in clouded skies.

(c) By placing the object before its verb and the subject after it :—

A transient *calm* the happy *scenes* bestow.

No *hive* hast thou of hoarded sweets.

(d) By placing a qualifying phrase before, instead of after, the noun that it qualifies :—

Thou sun, *of this great world* both eye and soul.—*Milton*.

(e) By placing the preposition after its noun, instead of before it :—

They dashed that rapid torrent *through*.

Where Echo walks steep hills *among*.

Like children bathing on the shores

Buried a wave *beneath*.

(f) By placing the Infinitive before the verb on which it depends :—

When first thy sire *to send* on earth

Virtue, his darling child, designed.—*Gray*.

(g) By placing the complement before its verb, instead of after it, in sentences where the complement is not emphatic :—

Grieved though thou art, forbear the rash design.

Fresh blows the wind, a western wind.

(h) By placing an adverb before an Intransitive verb instead of after it (see § 312) :—

Merrily, merrily goes the bark;

Ful louly did the herdsman full.—*Scott*.

(i) By placing an adverb before, instead of after, the verb with which it is compounded :—

Up springs from yonder tangled thorn

A stag more white than mountain snow.—*Scott*.

Out spake the victor then.—*Campbell*.

(j) By using *or—or* for *either—or*, and *nor—nor* for *neither—nor* :—

Remote, unfriended, solitary, slow,
Or by the lazy Scheldt, or wandering Po.—*Goldsmith*.
Nor grief nor pain shall break my rest.

V. The use of adjectives or participles instead of clauses. This is done for the sake of terseness.

(1) He can't combine each *well proportioned* part.

That is, he cannot make the different parts proportionate to each other and then combine them into a symmetrical whole.

(2) See that your *polished* arms be primed with care.

That is, see that your arms (or weapons) are well polished and primed with care.

(3) Forth goes the woodman, leaving unconcerned
The cheerful haunts of men.

Here "cheerful" means "however cheerful they may be."

(4) From his *slack* hand the garland wreathed for me
Down dropped, and all the faded roses shed.

Here "slack" stands for "which had become slack."

(5) But he who hurts a *harmless* neighbour's peace,
Insults fallen worth or beauty in distress.

Here "harmless" stands for "though he is harmless," and "fallen" for "when it is fallen."

(6) From *loveless* youth to *unrespected* age
No passion gratified except her rage.

Her youth was devoid of love, the peculiar grace of youth ; and her old age was devoid of respect, the peculiar privilege of age ; she gratified no passion except her evil temper.

(7) *The* jay, the rook, the daw,
And each harsh pipe, discordant *heard alone*,
Aid the full concert.

Here *heard alone* means "when it is heard alone."

Note.—In paraphrasing poetry into prose one of the first things to be done is to convert such adjectives or participles as those quoted above into verbs, adding such *Relatives* or *Conjunctions* as may be necessary.

VI. The use of epithets for the sake of ornament. This peculiarity is in keeping with the chief aim of poetry, which is to please rather than to instruct. An epithet is *ornamental*, when it is in no respect essential to the sense.

The breezy call of *incense-breathing* morn,
The swallow twittering from its *straw-built* shed,
The cock's shrill clarion, and the echoing horn,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.—*Gray*.

Here the epithets "breezy," "twittering," "shrill," and "echoing" are all conducive to the sense; but *incense-breathing* and *straw-built* serve no purpose other than that of ornament.

Ornamental epithets are italicised in the following lines:—

- (1) Oh mother Ida, *many-fountain'd* Ida,
Dear mother Ida, hearken ere I die.
- (2) Then answer made the *bold* Sir Bedivere.

In the following lines the italicised epithets are essential:—

As shines the moon in *clouded* skies,
She in her *poor* attire was seen.

The *golden* harvest; the *swift* stag; the *tawny* lion; the *bring* deep; the *mighty* deep, etc., are all stock phrases common in poetry. The epithets are merely ornamental.

Note.—In paraphrasing poetry into prose the student should take care to give greater prominence to the essential than to the ornamental epithets.

VII. The use of graphic or picturesque language. This peculiarity, too, arises from the desire to please. Language is graphic or picturesque, when it calls up some image to the mind by dwelling on the particular rather than on the general or abstract.

Arise, my love, my fair, and come away; for, lo! the winter is past, the rain is over and gone, the flowers appear on the earth; the time of the singing of birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in our land; the fig tree putteth forth her green figs; and the vines with the tender grapes perfume the air. Arise, my love, my fair, and come away.—*The Song of Solomon.*

VIII. A freer use of Figurative language than in Prose. The different figures of speech have been described in Chapter xxviii., and need not now be recapitulated.

APPENDIX A.—CERTAIN GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Anomaly: a solitary or very uncommon deviation from accident or syntax ; Gr. *anōmalia*, unevenness of ground.

Archaism: the use of a word that was once common, but is now out of ordinary use ; as *clomb* for *climbed*.

Di'-a-lect: a provincial or local form of any language.

El-lip'-sis: the idiomatic omission of a word or words ; as—
I told you (that) you would succeed.

Eu'-pho-ny: the use of words or syllables that have a pleasing sound.

Hom'-o-nym: a word that is spelt and pronounced in the same way as another, but has an entirely distinct meaning, and is in fact a distinct word ; as *bear* (the animal), *bear* (to produce or endure).

Impropriety: the use of a word in a sense that does not properly belong to it ; as, “to *perpetrate* a virtuous act.” (This verb is used only for bad actions.)

Par'-o-nym: a word, not spelt the same as another, but pronounced exactly alike ; as *hair*, *hare*.

Parenthesis: literally “an insertion by the way” ; that is, a clause or phrase wedged into a sentence, in passing.

Purity: the use of words sanctioned by the best modern writers. This rule excludes barbarisms of all kinds, such as the needless use of foreign words (as *à propos* for *in reference to*) or of classical words (as *de novo* for *anew*), or of slang words (as *jolly* for *very*).

Solecism: a violation of Syntax,—a grammatical blunder ; as, “*whom* do men say that *I am*?” (Here *whom* should be *who*.) Or, a violation of idiom ; as, “Die *with* fever.” (Here *with* should be changed to *of*.)

Hom'-o-phone: words sounded, but not spelt, alike ; as *sun*, *some*. Distinct from homonym.

Syn'-o-nym: a word having the same or nearly the same meaning as another ; as *improbable*, *unlikely*.

Tautology: an unnecessary repetition ; as—

The day declines ; the sun is going down.

Phonetics (Gr. *phonetica*, things pertaining to the voice): that branch of grammar that deals with speech-sounds.

Pleonasm: redundancy; as "a *sole monopoly*."

Style: such use of words in the expression of thought as distinguishes one writer from another. Thus a style may be terse or diffuse; pithy or pointless; simple or rhetorical; spirited or tame; light or ponderous, etc.

APPENDIX B.—ABBREVIATIONS.

<i>A.</i> or <i>Ans.</i>	Answer	<i>Con.</i>	Against; opposed
<i>Abp.</i>	Archbishop	<i>C.S.I.</i>	Companion of the
<i>A.D.</i>	Anno Domini, in the year of our Lord		Order of the Star of India
<i>A.D.C.</i>	Aide-de-camp	<i>Cret.</i>	A hundredweight
<i>Æt.</i>	Ætatis; of his age; aged	<i>D.C.L.</i>	Doctor of Civil Law
<i>A.M.</i>	Ante Meridiem; be- fore noon	<i>D.D.</i>	Doctor of Divinity
<i>Anon.</i>	Anonymous	<i>Dec.</i>	December
<i>App.</i>	Appendix	<i>D.M.</i>	Doctor of Music
<i>Augt.</i>	August	<i>Do.</i>	Ditto, the same
<i>B.A.</i>	Bachelor of Arts	<i>D.V.</i>	Deo Volente; if God wills
<i>Bar.</i>	Baronet	<i>Duct.</i>	Pennyweight
<i>B.C.</i>	Before Christ	<i>Ed.</i>	Edition; Editor
<i>B.C.L.</i>	Bachelor of Civil Law	<i>e.g.</i>	Exempli gratia; for the sake of ex- ample
<i>B.D.</i>	Bachelor of Divinity	<i>E.L.</i>	East Latitude
<i>B.L.</i>	Bachelor of Law	<i>Esg.</i>	Esquire
<i>Bp.</i>	Bishop	<i>Etc. or &c.</i>	Etcetera; and the rest; and so on
<i>Bros.</i>	Brothers	<i>Feb.</i>	February
<i>B.Sc.</i>	Bachelor of Science	<i>F.R.A.S.</i>	Fellow of the Royal Astronomical Society
<i>Cantab.</i>	Of Cambridge	<i>F.R.C.S.</i>	Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons
<i>Capt.</i>	Captain	<i>F.R.S.</i>	Fellow of the Royal Society
<i>C.B.</i>	Companion of the Bath	<i>Gall.</i>	Gallon
<i>C.E.</i>	Civil Engineer	<i>H.M.</i>	Honorary Magistrate
<i>Cent.</i>	Centum; a hundred	<i>Hon., Hon'ble</i>	Honourable
<i>Cf.</i>	Confer; compare	<i>Ib. or Ibid.</i>	Ibidem; in the same place or author
<i>Ch.</i> or <i>Chap.</i>	Chapter	<i>Id.</i>	Idem; the same
<i>C.I.E.</i>	Companion of the Order of the In- dian Empire	<i>i.e.</i>	Id est; that is
<i>Cir.</i>	Circum; about	<i>Incog.</i>	Incognito (Ital.); unknown
<i>O.M.G.</i>	Companion of the Order of St. Michael and St.	<i>In loc.</i>	In loco; in the place
	George	<i>Inst.</i>	In the current month
<i>Co.</i>	Company		
<i>Col.</i>	Colonel		

I.O.U.	I owe you; an acknowledgement of a debt	Oct.	October
<i>Jan.</i>	January	<i>O.T.</i>	Old Testament
<i>J.P.</i>	Justice of the Peace	<i>Oxon.</i>	Of Oxford
<i>Jr. or Jun.</i>	Junior; younger	<i>Oz.</i>	Ounce
<i>K.B.</i>	Knight of the Bath	<i>Per.</i>	By; as per annum
<i>K.C.B.</i>	Knight Commander of the Bath	<i>Per cent.</i>	Per centum; by the hundred
<i>K.C.I.E.</i>	Knight Commander of the Order of the Indian Empire	<i>P.M.</i>	Post Meridiem; afternoon
<i>K.C.S.I.</i>	Knight Commander of the Order of the Star of India	<i>P.P.C.</i>	Pour prendre congé; to take leave
<i>K.G.</i>	Knight of the Garter	<i>P.W.D.</i>	Public Works Department
<i>K.G.C.</i>	Knight of the Grand Cross	<i>Pro.</i>	For, in favour of
<i>K.R.C.</i>	Knight of the Red Cross	<i>Pro. tem.</i>	Pro tempore; for the time being
<i>Lb.</i>	A pound in weight	<i>Prox.</i>	Proximo; in the coming month
<i>L. or l. or £</i>	A pound in money	<i>P.S.</i>	Postscript
<i>Lieut. or Lt.</i>	Lieutenant	<i>Qu. or Q.</i>	Query, or question
<i>Lieut.-Col.</i>	Lieutenant-Colonel	<i>Q.C.</i>	Queen's Council
<i>Lieut.-Gen.</i>	Lieutenant-General	<i>Q.E.D.</i>	Quod erat demonstrandum; which was to be demonstrated
<i>Lieut.-Gov.</i>	Lieutenant-Governor	<i>Qr.</i>	Quarter
<i>LL.B.</i>	Bachelor of Laws	<i>Q.V.</i>	Quod Vide; which see
<i>LL.D.</i>	Doctor of Laws	<i>R.A.</i>	Royal Academy, or Royal Artillery
<i>Long.</i>	Longitude	<i>R.E.</i>	Royal Engineer
<i>Lat.</i>	Latitude	<i>Rev.</i>	Reverend
<i>M.A.</i>	Master of Arts	<i>R.H.A.</i>	Royal Horse Artillery
<i>Maj.</i>	Major	<i>R.N.</i>	Royal Navy
<i>Maj.-Gen.</i>	Major-General	<i>Rt. Rev.</i>	Right Reverend
<i>M.B.</i>	Bachelor of Medicine	<i>Rt. Hon.</i>	Right Honourable
<i>M.D.</i>	Doctor of Medicine	<i>Sept.</i>	September
<i>M.P.</i>	Member of Parliament	<i>S.L.</i>	South Latitude
<i>M.R.A.S.</i>	Member of the Royal Asiatic Society	<i>Sq. Ft.</i>	Square foot
<i>M.R.C.S.</i>	Member of the Royal College of Surgeons	<i>St.</i>	Stet, let it stand
<i>MS.</i>	Manuscript	<i>St.</i>	Saint, as St. Paul
<i>Mt.</i>	Mount; mountain	<i>Supt.</i>	Superintendent
<i>N.B.</i>	Nota bene; note well	<i>S.W.</i>	South-West
<i>Nem. con.</i>	Nemine contradicente; unanimously	<i>S.E.</i>	South-East
<i>N. Lat.</i>	North Latitude	<i>T.O.</i>	Turn over
<i>No.</i>	Number	<i>Ult.</i>	Ultimo, last month
<i>Nov.</i>	November	<i>U.S.A.</i>	United States of America
<i>N. T.</i>	New Testament	<i>Ven.</i>	Venerable
		<i>Viz.</i>	Videlicet; namely
		<i>W.L.</i>	West Latitude
		<i>Xmas.</i>	Christmas

APPENDIX C.—ACCENT.

1. **Accent, emphasis, quantity.**—Roughly speaking, both accent and emphasis are the effect of *loudness* (which helps to produce distinctness), while quantity depends upon the *time* it takes to pronounce a syllable. It is the difference in time which makes a vowel or syllable long or short.

Accent is the stress or loudness of voice thrown upon a single *syllable*; emphasis is that thrown upon a whole *word* or upon a combination of words.

Note.—Take care to place the sign of the accent against the last letter, and not upon the medial vowel, of the accented syllable. Thus *plague* is accented as *plague'*; but *ague* is accented as *a'-gue*.

2. **Position of Accent in English.**—The English language delights in throwing the accent as far back as possible, and this in all words, whether of Romanic or Teutonic origin.

In words of Teutonic origin this peculiarity of the language has invariably, we believe, succeeded in having its own way. The tendency to throw the accent back has gone on persistently without interruption; and if any exceptions exist in English as now spoken (which is doubtful), these exceptions are very rare.

But in words of Romanic origin the same tendency, however widely it may have spread, has not always carried the day. Here, as we shall show below, counter influences drawn from French have been at work. The contest, however, has ended in the triumph of the native tendency much more frequently than in its defeat.

Words of Teutonic Origin.

3. **Initial or medial Long Vowel shortened.**—The long vowel of an accented monosyllable is apt to become shortened, if an unaccented syllable is added to it.

The added syllable may be (a) a suffix, or (b) a word.

(a) *An added suffix:*—

Gos'-ling was once *goose-ling*. *Heath'-er* (sounded as *hēth'-er*) is from *heath*. *Rum'-age* was once *rōom-age*. *Throt'-tle* is from *throat*. *Här'-rier* is from *hare*. *Child'-ren* is from *child*. *Sor'-ry* is from *sōre*. *Strip'-ling* was once *stripe-ling*. *Know'-ledge* (sounded as *nōl'-lege*, rhyming with *cōl'-lege*) is from *know*.

Note.—The same principle has been at work in words of Romanic origin also. Thus *sauv'-age* is sounded as *sōs'-age*, *laur'-el* as *lōr'-el*, *trou-ble* as *trub'-ble*, etc.

Vowel-shortening is conspicuous in the Past tenses and Past participles of some weak verbs:—

Thus *lead* (Mid. Eng. *led-en*) made the Past tense *lēd-de*; hence (after the elision of the final *e* in Mod. Eng.) we have the Past tense *led-d*, in which the final *d* became superfluous; so it is now spelt *led*. Similarly from *read* (Pres.) we have *rēad* (pronounced as *rēd*, Past tense): from *hīde* we get *hīd*; from *feēd*, *fed*; from *hear*, *heard* (pronounced as *hērd*); from *feēl*, *felt*, etc.

Vowel-shortening is produced, if the added suffix contains no vowel:—

Thus *wide* gives *width*; *broad* gives *breadth* (sounded as *brēdth*); *blithe* gives *bliss*; *bear* gives *berth* and *birth*.

(b) *An added word* :—

Bōn'-fire from *bone-fire*. *Break'-fast* (sounded as *brēk'-fast*) from *break+fast*. *Crān'-berry* from *crane+berry*. *Hūs'-band* from *house+band*. *Hūs'-sif* or *hūs'-sy* from *house+wife*. *Wim'-men* (misspelt as *women*) from *wife+men*. *Fif'-ty* from *five-ty*. *Mer'-maid* from *mere+maid* (water-maid). *Nōs'-tril* from *nose+thirl*. *Shēr'-iff* from *shire+reeve*. *Tūd-pole* from *toad+poll* (a toad which is all head or poll). *Es'-sex* from *East-sex*, *Sūs'-sex* from *South-sex*. *Vine-yard* is sounded as *vin'-yard*. *Fore-head* as if it rhymed with *hōr'-rid*. *Shēp'-herd* from *sheep-herd*. *Stīr-rup* from *sty-rope* (where *sty*, A.S. *stig*, means "to mount"). *Hōl'-i-day* from *hō-by-day*. *Twopence*, *threepence*, *fourpence*, *fivepence* are sounded as if they were spelt *tūp'-pence*, *thrēp'-pence*, *fōr'-pence*, *fiip'-pence*. *Row-lock* is sounded as *rūl-lock*. The *waist* of *waist-coat* is sounded as *west'-coat*.

4. **Final Long Vowel shortened**.—The vowel in the last syllable of a dissyllabic compound, though originally long, is apt to be shortened, if no accent is thrown upon it.

The *stone* in *brim'-stone* and *grind'-stone* is often sounded as *stūn*. The *bour* of *neigh-bour* (originally *būr*) is sounded as *būr*. The *reeve* in *sher-iff* (originally *shire-reeve*) is sounded as *rīf*. The *rip* of *stīr-rup* was originally *rope*. The *y* of *dais'-y* was once *eye*, as in *day's-eye* (the eye of day). The *band* of *hus'-band* was originally *bōndi* or *buandi*, dweller. The *coat* of *waist-coat* is sounded as *cūt*. The *dōm* of *king'-dom* was originally *dōm*. The *lōck* of *wed'-lock* was originally sounded as *loke* (from A.S. *lāc*). The *red* of *hat'-red* was originally sounded as *rēd*. The *en* of *kit'-ten* was originally *oun*, as in Mid. Eng. *kit-oun*. The *day* of *Mon'-day*, *Tues-day*, etc., is sounded as *dy* or *dī*. In proper names *town* is reduced to *tōn*, and *hām* to *hām*; as in *Hamp'-ton*, *Nor'-ham*, etc.

5. **Short Vowel or Syllable in Dissyllables cancelled**.—In dissyllables the vowel of the unaccented syllable, if short, may disappear, and in extreme cases even the whole of the unaccented syllable.

(a) *Disappearance of short vowels* :—

The A.S. *æl-messe* passed into *al-messe* (later. *all-mes*) in Mid. Eng., and finally became *almis* in Mod. Eng. In the plural and possessive endings, *-es*, the *e* which was once syllabic is now cancelled, whenever the pronunciation permits. Thus *moon'-es* (Poss.) has become *moon's*; *day'-es* (Plur.) has become *days*. Similarly in 3rd Pers. Sing. Pres. tense *runn'-es* has become *runs*. In the Past tenses of weak verbs, though the *e* is retained in the spelling, it is lost in the sound; as *look-ed* sounded as *lookt*, *press-ed* sounded as *prest*.

(b) *Disappearance of whole syllable* :—

With-draw'-ing room has become *drawsing-room*; *en-drake* has become *drake*; *iaverk* has become *lark*; *sithence* has become *since*; *nother* has become *nor*; *alone* is often spelt as *lon*; *wan-touen* ("badly trained") has become *wan'-ton*.

6. **Short Middle Syllable in Trisyllables cancelled**.—

In trisyllables, of which the first syllable is accented, the short middle syllable sometimes disappears :—

Heron-e-ry is sounded as *hern'-e-ry*. *Four'-teen-night* has become *fort'-night*. *Ford'-cas-tle* is often sounded as *fōt'-sle*. *Ho'-lin-oak* (i.e. holly-oak) has become *hōln'-oak*. *Fur'-row-long* has become *fur'-long*. *Zoet'-el-aar* (Dutch for "virtualler") has been Anglicised to *sut'-ler*. *Glou-ces-ter* is sounded as *Glos'-ter*. The names of all the days of the week, except *Saturday*, have lost a medial short syllable. Thus A.S. *Sun-nan-dæg* (the Sun's day) has become *Sun'-day*; *Mon-an-dæg* (the moon's day) has become *Mon'-day*; *Wodn-es-dæg* (Woden's day) has become *Wednesday*, and sounded as *Wens-day*; *Thun-res-dæg* (Thunder's day) has become *Thurs'-day*; *Frig-e-deg* (Frigu's day) has become *Friday*.

Words of Romanic Origin (French or Latin).

7. **Position of Accent in Early French**.—In early French the accent fell, as a rule, on the same syllable as that on which it fell in the corresponding Latin word. Thus the Latin accusative *ra-ti-ōn-em* came into French in the form of *re-soun'*.

Hence when the French word *re-soun'* was imported into English, there was a strong tendency (see § 2) to shift the accent back to the first syllable and turn *re-soun'* into *re'-soun*; of this tendency the Mod. Eng. *rea'-son* is the natural result.

In Chaucer's time the accent in this and analogous words was still unsettled, and the poet used any accent which happened to suit his rhyme or metre best at the time :—

Til that he knew, by grace and by *re-soun'*.—*Monk's Tale*.

As far as *re'-soun* axeth, hardly.—*Clerk's Prologue*.

Similarly in one line he has *hon'-our* and in another *hon'-our*; in one line he has *for'-tune* and in another *for-tun'-e*.

The words *riches*, *duress*, and *laches* all show a shortening of

the final syllable, which in French was *-esse* (accented), and not *-es* (unaccented). Hence these words are now pronounced *rich'-ēs*, *du'-rēss*, *lach'-ēs*. The French word *pres-tige'* (sounded *pres-tēzh*) has with some persons been naturalised to *pres'-tige*. The Italian *bal-cō-ne* has been naturalised to *bal'-cō-ny*.

8. Transfer of Accent gradual.—The process of transferring the accent (in words of French or Latin origin) from the last to the first syllable, was gradual. It was, as we have seen, very unsettled in Chaucer's time, and was by no means definitely fixed in the Tudor period.

Spencer.—In this poet we have *cap-tive'*, *cru-el'*, *en-vy'*, *for-est'*, *pre-sage'*, *tres-pass'*, *mis-chie'-vous*.

Shakspeare.—The nouns *con'-verse*, *rec'-ord*, *in'-crease*, *in'-stinct*, are given as *con-verse'*, *re-cord'*, *in-crease'*, *in-stinct'*. *Con'-tra-ry* is given as *con-tra'-ry*, and *ex'-tir-pate* as *ex-tir'-pate*.

Milton.—The following words in Milton all have their accent on the last syllable, where we now have them in the first:—*ad-verse'*, *as-peet'*, *com-rade'*, *con-test'* (noun), *con-trite'*, *e-dict'*, *im-pulse'*, *in-sult'* (noun), *pre-text'*, *pro-cess'*, *pro-duct'*, *pro-strate'*, *sur-face'*, *up-roar'*. *Blas-phe-mous* is given as *blas-phe'-mous*.

9. Transfer of Accent in trisyllables.—In trisyllables the tendency to throw the accent back to the first syllable has not been quite so strong as in dissyllables. Observe the following:—

Ab-do'-men, *a-eu'-men*, *ad-mon'-ish*, *ad-ven'-ture* (but *ad'-vent*), *fa-nat'-ic* (but *fa'-na-tic*), *re-mon'-strate* (but *dem'-on-strate*), *in-ter'-pret*, *in-ter'-stic* (but *in'-ter-val*, *in'-ter-est*), *so-no'-rous* (but *deec'-o-rous*), *a-pos'-tle* (but adj. *ap'-o-stol'-ic*), etc.

When an adjective has a negative prefix attached to it, the original accent is sometimes retained and sometimes thrown back:—

Retained :—*doc'-ile*, *in-doc'-ile*; *du'-ly*, *un-du'-ly*; *de'-cent*, *in-de'-cent*; *no'-ble*, *ig-no'-ble*; *hon'-est*, *dis-hon'-est*; *pru'-dent*, *im-pru'-dent*; *mod'-est*, *im-mod'-est*; *nor'-mal*, *ab-nor'-mal*, etc.

Thrown back :—*po'-tent*, *im'-po-tent*; *fa'-mous*, *in'-famous*; *fi'-nite*, *in'-finite*; *pi'-ous*, *im'-pious*; *sa'-cred*, *des'-e-crate*; *di'-rect*, *in'-di-rect*, etc.

When a new syllable is added to the end of a dissyllabic word, the accent is sometimes retained and sometimes thrown back:—

Retained :—*ad-here'*, *ad-he'-rent*; *a-vow*, *a-vow'-al*; *per-use'*, *per'-u-sal*; *de-fend'*, *de-fend'-ant*; *com-ply'*, *com-pli'-ance*; *re-pel'*, *re-pel'-lent*, etc.

Thrown back :—*de-spair'*, *des'-pe-rate*; *pro-vide'*, *prov'-i-dent*; *pro-test'*, *prot'-es-tant*; *sub-side'*, *sub'-si-dence*; *con-fide'*, *con'-fi-dent*; *pho'-to-graph*, *pho-tog'-ra-phy*; *in'-cense*, *frank'-in-cense*, etc.

10. **Accent in nouns and verbs.**—Nouns are distinguished from the corresponding verbs by the position of the accent, the noun being accented on the first syllable, and the verb on the second, as *ex-port* (noun), *ex-port'* (verb). This principle is observed with so much consistency in English, that it could not have come to pass by accident. The following has been assigned as the reason:—

When *nouns* were borrowed, they were made to conform in point of accent to nouns of Teutonic origin. Thus the noun *con-vert* was accented on the same principle as the Teutonic words *fath-er*, *moth-er*. But when *verbs* were borrowed, they came in under different conditions; for they did not come into Middle English as dissyllables, but as trisyllables; and trisyllables, as has been shown in the previous paragraph, managed to retain their original accent, much more effectively than dissyllables. Thus the Infinitive of the verb *convert* was in Middle English *con-vert'-en*, and the Pres. Part. *con-vert'-ing*. The accent being thus thrown on the stem of the verb from the first, was retained as a convenient mode of distinguishing the two parts of speech:—

<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Verb.</i>
Ab-stract	ab-stract'	De-tail	de-tail'	Prem'-ise	pre-mise'
Ac-cent	ac-cent'	Di-gest	di-gest'	Pres'-age	pre-sage'
Af-fix	af-fix'	Dis-count	dis-count'	Pres'-ent	pre-sent'
At-trib-ute	at-trib'-ute	En'-ve-lope	en-vel'-op	Pro'-ceeds	pro-ceed'
Aug-ment	aug-ment'	Es-cort	es-cort'	Prod'-uce	pro-duce'
Com'-mune	com-mune'	Es'-say	es-say'	Pro'-gress	pro-gress'
Com'-ound	com-pound'	Ex'-ile	ex-ile'	Proj'-ect	pro-ject'
Con'-cert	con-cert'	Ex'-port	ex-port'	Pro'-test	pro-test'
Con'-duct	con-duct'	Ex'-tract	ex-tract'	Reb'-el	re-bel'
Con'-fine	con-fine'	Fer'-ment	fer-ment'	Reo'-ord	re-cord'
Con'-flict	con-flict'	Fore'-cast	fore-cast'	Ref'-use(s)	re-fuse' (z)
Con'-sort	con-sort'	Im'-port	im-port'	Re'-tail	re-tail'
Con'-test	con-test'	Im'-press	im-press'	Sub'-ject	sub-ject'
Con'-tract	con-tract'	In'-cense	in-cense'	Suf'-fix	suf-fix'
Con'-trast	con-trast'	In'-crease	in-increase'	Sur'-vey	sur-vey'
Con'-verse	con-verse'	In'-sult	in-sult'	Sus'-pect	sus-pect'
Con'-vert	con-vert'	Ob'-ject	ob-ject'	Tor'-ment	tor-ment'
Con'-vict	con-vict'	Per'-fume	per-fume'	Trans'-fer	trans-fer'
Con'-voy	con-voy'	Per'-mit	per-mit'	Trans'-port	trans-port'
De'-crease	de-crease'	Per'-vert	per-vert'	Up'-set	up-set'
Des'-ert	de-sert'	Pre'-fix	pre-fix'		

If the choice lies between a Noun and an Adjective, the Noun retains its acquired right of throwing the accent on the first syllable, leaving the adjective to accentuate its second syllable.

<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>	<i>Noun.</i>	<i>Adjective.</i>
Au'-gust	au-gust'	Ex'-pert	ex-pert'	Min'-ute	mi-nute'
Com'-pact	com-pact'	In'-stinct	in-stinct'	Pre'-ce-dent	pre-ce'-dent
		In'-va-lid'	in-val'-id'		

If the choice lies between a Verb and an Adjective, the Verb retains its acquired right of throwing the accent on the second syllable, leaving the adjective to accentuate the first syllable.

Ab-sent' (verb), ab'-sent (adj.); fre-quent' (verb), fre'-quent (adj.).

Sometimes, however, there is no diversity of accent to distinguish one part of speech from another:—

Con-tent' (adj. and verb), con-tents' or con'-tents (noun).

As-say', con-sent', her'-ald, sup-port', re-spect' (all nouns and verbs).

Con'-crete, pa'-tient (adjectives and nouns).

11. Disappearance of Unaccented syllables.—The force of the English accent is so strong that unaccented syllables run the risk of disappearing altogether. This has been exemplified already in the case of Teutonic words. It is no less true in the case of Romanic words also, and shows itself—(a) in Aphesis, or the loss of an initial vowel; (b) in Apheresis, or the loss of a longer initial syllable; (c) in Apocopē, or the loss of a final syllable; and (d) in Syncopē, or the loss of a medial syllable.

(a) Aph'-e-sis:—mend for amend; peal (of bells) for appeal; pert (saucy) for Fr. *aperit*; prentice for apprentice; vanguard for Fr. *avant-garde* (front guard); bishop from Lat. *episcopus* (A.S. *biscep*); scutcheon for escutcheon; strange for estrange; special for especiale; fray for affray; squire for esquire.

(b) Aph'-e-re-sis:—sterling for *Easterling*; spend from Lat. *dispendere*; spite for despise; sport from Lat. *disportare*, Fr. *desport-er*; gin for engine (Lat. *ingenium*); sample for ensample; cheat for escheat; spital for hospital (Lat. *hospitale*); dropsy for hydropsiy (Gr. *hydropsis*).

(c) Ap-oc'-o-pe; (the most common loss is that of final e, one of the marks that distinguish Modern from Middle English):—beast for best-e; feast for fest-e; chivalry-e; riches for riches-se; duress for dures-se; punch for pun-ish; clerk for cler-ic; French for *Fren-e-ic* (Frankish).

(d) Syn'-co-pe:—but-lcr for bot-il-ler (one who attends to bottles); chim-ney for chim-e-nee; loun-dress for low-end-cr-ess; crown for co-rona (Lat. *corona*); par-lous (Shakspeare) for per-i-lous; part-ner for par-ce-nere; ward-robe for war- or gar-de-robe; dam-sel for dam'-o-sel; mar-shal for mar-es-chal; prox-y for pro-cur-a-ty; pal-sy for Mid. Eng. pal-e-sy (Fr. *par-a-lys-ic*, Gr. *par-a-lys-is*); sex-ton for sa-crist-an.

12. Syllabic division.—Lastly, we must take note of the effect of accent in the dividing of syllables. On the question of how syllables should be divided, authorities are not agreed.

Some say, "Divide according to etymology"; others say, "Divide according to pronunciation," *i.e.* according to accent.

The first principle is impracticable for two reasons: (1) because most persons know nothing about the etymology of a word, whereas all persons know, or ought to know, how the word is pronounced; (2) because the original elements of a word have sometimes become so obliterated by use, that they cannot be made the basis of syllabic division. Thus we must divide *monkey* into *mon-key*, without looking to its origin *monicchio*; and we must divide *banquet* into *ban-quet*, though if we look to the etymology it would be *banqu-et*.

The only safe guide is the accent. The spoken language has *pe-ruse'* (verb) at one moment, and *pe-ru'-sal* (noun) at another. But if we are to be guided by the etymology, the first syllable in either case would be the prefix *per*.

APPENDIX D.—PRONUNCIATION.

SECTION 1.—VOWELS: SOUNDS, SYMBOLS, AND SPELLINGS.

1. **Twenty vowel-sounds.**¹—If our alphabet were more perfect than it is, we should have one separate symbol to express each separate sound. Unfortunately it is very imperfect; for we have only five vowel-signs (*y* having been excluded as superfluous) to express four times as many sounds. Of these twenty vowel-sounds, sixteen are simple, and four are diphthongs. (The phrase "phonetic symbol" used below means the symbol used to express or denote the *one particular sound* to which it is assigned.)

A. Four sounds² frequently denoted by the symbol *a*; one short, and three long; all simple, none diphthongal.

¹ The list of twenty sounds here given, though not the same as that given in current school-books, will, I trust, be accepted as correct; for it is the one in which all the best authorities are agreed,—Professor Skeat, Mr. Sweet, Miss Laura Soames, and Dr. Murray (in the introduction to the Oxford Dictionary). Dr. Murray's system is much more elaborate, but the basis is the same. As to the phonetic symbol most suitable for each sound, authorities are not equally unanimous. I have myself adopted those symbols which seemed likely to cause the least difficulty to a beginner, and which come nearest to those used in the current Dictionaries.

² To the four *a* sounds given above, it has been usual to add two more, viz. the *a* in *fall* and the *a* in *want*. The latter is evidently a mistake. It creates a redundancy and leads to confusion; for the *a* in *want* is identical in sound with the *o* in *not*, and it never has the sound of *o* except when it.

- { 1. Short: the sound of *a* in *marry*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{a} .
- 2. Long: the sound of *a* in *Mary*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\AA}$.
- 3. Long: the sound of *a* in *mason*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{a} .

Note.—Observe that (3) is quite a distinct sound from (2). In sounding (2) you have to open the jaws wider apart than in sounding (3). In (2) the *a* is always followed by an *r*; in (3) it never is.

- 4. Long: the sound of *a* in *path*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{a} .

E. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *e*; one short, and one long; both simple, neither diphthongal.

- 5. Short: the sound of *e* in *fed*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{e} .

- 6. Long: the sound of *ee* in *feed*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\bar{e}}$.

I. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *i*; one short, and one long: the short is simple, the long diphthongal.

- 7. Short: the sound of *i* in *bit*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{i} .

- 8. Long: the sound of *i* in *bite*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\bar{i}}$.

O. Three sounds commonly denoted, and a fourth occasionally denoted, by the symbol *o*; two short and two long; all simple, none diphthongal.

- { 9. Short: the sound of *o* in *not*. Phonetic symbol \mathfrak{o} .

- 10. Long: the sound of *o* in *frost*. Phonetic symbol *au*.

Note.—Since the usual spelling is *au*, as in “*fraud*,” this has been made the phonetic symbol in preference to *o*. But the use of the digraph *au* does not make the sound less simple than it is. In fact, (10) is nothing more than (9) drawled or lengthened. If *dog* is drawled, it has the sound of *dau*g. If the first syllable of *laurel* is shortened (as in practice it always is), it has the sound of *lærel*, rhyming with “*moral*.”

- { 11. Short: the sound of *o* in *dit-to*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{o'}$.

- 12. Long: the sound of *o* in *tone*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\bar{o}}$.

Note.—There is a great difference between (11) and (9). In sounding (9) you have to open your jaws rather wide apart, whereas in sounding (11) you almost close them. No. (12) is merely No. (11) drawled or lengthened.

OO. Two sounds commonly denoted by the digraph *oo*; one short, the other long; both simple, neither diphthongal.

- { 13. Short: the sound of *oo* in *stood*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\ddot{o}}$.

- 14. Long: the sound of *oo* in *stool*. Phonetic symbol $\mathfrak{\ddot{\bar{o}}}$.

is preceded by *w* or *qu*. In fact, it is an *o* sound, and its connection with *a* is both accidental and exceptional. The former is not an *a* sound either, and is not expressed by *a* except when the *a* is followed by *l*. Professor Skeat associates only four sounds with the symbol *a* (see page 258 ff. of my *Historical English and Derivation*).

U. Two sounds commonly denoted by the symbol *u*; one short, the other long; the short simple, the long diphthongal.

15. Short: the sound of *u* in *duck*. Phonetic symbol \ddot{u} .

16. Long: the sound of *u* in *duke*. Phonetic symbol \ddot{u} .

Oi. One sound commonly denoted by the digraph *oi*; diphthongal.

17. Long: the sound of *oi* in *tail*. Phonetic symbol *oi*.

Ou. One sound commonly denoted by the digraph *ou*; diphthongal.

18. Long: the sound of *ou* in *mouse*. Phonetic symbol *ou*.

Lastly, we come to two sounds, one short, the other long, and both simple or non-diphthongal. These have been called the Obscure, Neutral, or Indefinite sounds. For the expression of these sounds we have no vowel in our alphabet. So the expedient which the best authorities have agreed upon is to use \circ (inverted \circ) for the phonetic symbol.

{ 19. Short: the sound of *er* in *gather*.¹ Phonetic symbol \circ .

{ 20. Long: the sound of *er* in *con-fer*.¹ Phonetic symbol $\circ\circ$.

2. General results.—We have thus twenty vowel-sounds, of which sixteen are pure or simple, and four are mixed or diphthongal. The sixteen simple sounds are subdivided into (a) eight short, viz. \ddot{a} , \ddot{e} , \ddot{i} , \ddot{o} , \ddot{o}' , $\ddot{o}\ddot{o}$, \ddot{u} , and \ddot{e} ; and (b) eight long, viz. \ddot{a} , \ddot{a} , \ddot{a} , \ddot{e} , au , \ddot{o} , $\ddot{o}\ddot{o}$, and $\circ\circ$. The four diphthongs are \ddot{i} , \ddot{u} , *oi*, and *ou*.

Sounds which in the above description are bracketed together as short and long are real pairs. Thus, the *a* of *Mary* is the drawled or lengthened sound of the *a* in *marry*; the *o* of *frost* is the lengthened sound of the *o* in *not*; the *o* of *tone* is the lengthened sound of the *o* in *ditto*; the *oo* of *stool* is the lengthened sound of the *oo* in *stood*; the *er* in *confer* is the lengthened and accented sound of the *er* in *gather*.

On the other hand, the sounds which are not bracketed together as short and long are not pairs. Thus the $\circ\circ$ in *feed* is not the long sound of *e* in *fed*; the *i* of *bite* is not the long sound of *i* in *bit*; the *u* of *duke* is not the long sound of *u* in

¹ In Scotland, however, and in some of the northern counties of England, the *r* is trilled, that is, distinctly sounded as *r*. Owing to this peculiarity of the Northern dialect, I have been reluctantly compelled to adopt from Mr. Skeat, Mr. Sweet, Miss Soames, and Dr. Murray the awkward-looking symbol \circ . This sound is so natural to human speech that hesitating speakers use it to fill up the pauses in their sentences. In books such pauses are printed thus:—"I—er—am aware—er—that," etc.

duck. Though the same vowel is used in each case, the sounds are entirely distinct. For instance, the sound of *ee* in *feed* pairs not with *ɛ*, but with *ɪ*. The sound of *ɪ* is actually expressed by *ee* in the word "breeches" (sounded as *brɪtʃɪz*). Again, the sound of *ə* pairs not with *ə*, but with *ɛ*; thus *waɪst'-coat* is sounded as if it were spelt *wɛst'-coat*.

3. **How the four diphthongs are produced.**—Let us take each diphthong in turn.¹

i. The first vowel-sound that helps to make this diphthong is obsolete in modern English, though still heard in the north-country dialects, where the *a* of *man* has retained a sound intermediate between *ă* and *ā* (Nos. 1 and 4). This intermediate sound rapidly followed by the *i* of *bit* produces a third sound distinct from either. The spelling, *ai*, is seen in the word *aisle* (sounded as *il*).

Note.—The sound of *ă*, when added to *i*, would produce a diphthong, like the sound of *ai* or *ay* in *Kaiser*, *ayah* (Indian nurse).

ii. Made up of *ɪ*+*ō*. These, when sounded rapidly in succession, give *yōō*, like the *u* in *duke* (sounded as "dyōōk").

oi. Made up of *au* (see No. 10 in § 1) + *ɪ*. The utterance of these two simple sounds in rapid succession produces a mixed sound distinct from both.

ou. Made up of *ā* (see No. 4 in § 1) + *ō*. The utterance of these two simple sounds in rapid succession produces a mixed sound distinct from both.

Note.—A **digraph** is a compound letter; a **diphthong** is a compound sound. The use of a digraph to express a sound by no means indicates that the sound is diphthongal. Thus **i** and **ü**, though expressed by single vowels, are both diphthongs; while **au**, **ōō**, **ōō**, **ee**, though expressed by digraphs, are all simple sounds.

4. **Spellings of the twenty vowel-sounds.**—We shall follow the order of vowels, simple and diphthongal, given in § 1.

1. *ă*: *mad*, *plaid*, *have*, *salmon*, *thresh*.
2. *ā*: *Mary*, *airy*, *bearer*, *heiress*, *mayorality*, *therein*.
3. *ā*: *fatal*, *fate*, *tail*, *play*, *campaign*, *straight*, *vein*, *they*, *reign*.

¹ It has been pointed out by phoneticians (Skeat, Sweet, Soames, Dr. Murray) that the long vowels which I have written as *ă* and *ō* are usually sounded with the glides *i* and *u* respectively, as *aɪ*, *oʊ*, and that hence these vowels are in a certain sense diphthongal. They are not diphthongal, however, to the same extent that **i**, **ü**, **oi**, and **ou** are. For the sake of simplicity I have followed Miss Laura Soames in treating them as simple vowels, not as diphthongs.

ew : new, sew.
 i—e : bite, niche, police.
 ie : field, die, sieve.
 o : hot, cold, wolf, women, whom, son, button, lost, hero.
 o—e : cove, prove, love, move, shove.
 oa : load, broad, cup-board.
 oe : shoe, toe.
 oo : hook, fool, brooch, flood, door.
 ou : pour, young, thou, soup, soul.
 ough : rough, hiccup, cough, hough, trough, bough, though,
 through.
 al : fall, palm, shall, hospital.
 ol : cold, wolf, golf, sym'bol.
 ar : ar'-row, art, col-lar.

SECTION 2.—CONSONANTS : SOUNDS, SYMBOLS, AND SPELLINGS.

6. Twenty-five Consonantal sounds.—In English as now spoken there are altogether *twenty-five* consonantal sounds. The symbols used to denote these sounds, if we place them as nearly as we can in the order of the alphabet, run as follows:—

1. b	4. g	7. k	10. n	13. s	16. w	19. ch	22. th(in)
2. d	5. h	8. l	11. p	14. t	17. y	20. ng	23. sh
3. f	6. j	9. m	12. r	15. v	18. z	21. th(is)	24. zh
							25. wh

7. Simple and Compound.—Out of the twenty-five sounds enumerated above all are simple or uncompounded except two, viz. *j* and *ch*. These are called by Dr. Murray (in the Oxford Dictionary) "consonantal diphthongs," because he, with other phoneticians, has analysed *ch* into *t + sh*, and *j* into *d + zh*.

Even though we accept this analysis (which some persons are not inclined to do), it would be very inconvenient to write *tsh* for *ch*, and *dzh* for *j*. Moreover, the two sounds in question are of such frequent occurrence in our language, that *j* and *ch*, even if they are diphthongal, deserve a place in our list of consonantal symbols.

8. Redundant consonants.—It has been said that "our alphabet contains four redundant consonants—*c*, *j*, *g*, *x*." Assuming that the analysis of the sounds expressed by *j* and *ch* respectively is correct, the statement may be admitted for the following reasons:—

G is superfluous, because (1) when it precedes *u*, *o*, or *u*, it expresses the sound of *k*; (2) when it precedes *e* or *i*, it expresses

the sound of *s*; (3) when it is combined with *h*, as in *church*, the sound expressed by *ch* has been analysed into that of *tsh*.

J is superfluous, because its sound is that of *dsh*.

Q is superfluous, because it is never used except in combination with *u*, and the combination can be expressed equally well by *kw*, as in *awkward*.

X is superfluous, because in such words as *extra* it is equivalent to *ks*, and in *example* to *gz*.

9. Main divisions of consonants.—The consonantal sounds can be classified according to the organ chiefly used in uttering them. Any part of our bodily structure that helps us to utter articulate sounds may be called an organ of speech. The chief organs are the tongue, the throat, the palate, the teeth, and the lips. By means of these organs the breath is modified as it passes through the larynx.

The most important of all these organs is the tongue; for the loss of this organ involves the loss of articulate speech. Since the tongue is the necessary helpmate to the other four organs, there is no separate class of Lingual (Lat. *lingua*, tongue).

The main divisions of consonants are as follows:—

- I. Gutturals (Lat. *guttur*, throat): *k, g, ng*.
- II. Palatals (Lat. *palatum*, palate): *ch, j | sh, zh | y, r*.
- III. Dentals (Lat. *dent-em*, tooth): *t, d | s, z | n, l | th(is), th(is)*.
- IV. Labials (Lat. *labium*, lip): *p, b, m | f, v | wh, w*.

I. Gutturals: all these sounds are produced by raising the *back* of the tongue against the *soft palate*, viz. that part of the palate that lies further back towards the throat (Lat. *guttur*):—*k*, as in *keen*; *g*, as in *good*; *ng*, as in *thing* or *fin-ger*. The last, though expressed by a digraph, is as simple a sound as the other two. It occurs only when it is followed by another guttural, *k* or *g*, as in *blan-ket*, *fin-ger*, or when it comes at the end of a word, as in *thing*, *riding*. There is a great difference of sound between the *n* of *fin-ger*) and the *n* of *fin*. The former is a guttural, which you cannot utter without opening your jaws; the latter a dental, which you can utter only with closed teeth.

II. Palatals: all these sounds are produced by raising the *front* of the tongue towards the *hard palate*, or palate proper (viz. that part of the palate that lies further forward than the soft palate):—*ch* as in *chair*; *j*, as in *joke*; *sh*, as in *ship*; *zh*, as in *seizure*; *y*, as in *yield*; *r*, as in *rob*. All of these are simple sounds with the exception of the first two (§ 7).

III. Dentals: all these sounds are produced by bringing the point of the tongue towards the upper row of teeth:—*t*, as in tail; *d*, as in dog; | *s*, as in seal; *z*, as in zeal; | *n*, as in name; *l*, as in line; | *th*(in), as in breath; *th*(is), as in breathe. In sounding the first pair, *t* and *d*, the point of the tongue touches the upper teeth. In sounding the second pair, *s* and *z*, it comes very near the roots of the upper teeth, but does not quite touch them. In sounding the third pair, *n* and *l*, it touches the upper gums. In sounding the fourth pair, *th*(in) and *th*(is), it is placed between the upper and lower teeth.

IV. Labials: all these sounds are produced by closing the lips:—*p*, as in poor; *b*, as in boon; *m*, as in moon; | *f*, as in fox; *v*, as in vixen; | *wh*, as in whale; *w*, as in wine. In sounding *p*, *b*, and *m* the lips are closed against each other, while the tongue is left to rest on the lower jaw. In sounding *f* and *v* the edges of the upper teeth are pressed against the lower lip, while the tongue rests on the lower jaw. In sounding *wh* and *w* the lips are rounded with the corners drawn together, while the tongue is almost in the same position as in sounding *g*. Hence *w* and *g* are liable to be interchanged, as in *ward* (A.S. weard), guard (French spelling, *garde*).

) 10. The Glottal “*h*” (Greek *glottis*, mouth of the wind-pipe). “Glottal” is the name given to the open throat-sound expressed by the letter *h*. In sounding *h* we make no use of the palate, tongue, teeth, or lips. It is a mere breath-sound or aspirate, and stands alone in our alphabet.

The uncertainty about sounding or not sounding this unfortunate letter appears to have arisen in some way from the collision between English and French, which resulted from the Norman Conquest. In Anglo-Saxon the *h* was very distinctly sounded; in French very indistinctly. Hence the confusion.

11. **Minor subdivisions of Consonants.**—There are a few subdivisions of consonants, which cross with the five main divisions described above, and sometimes with one another.

Sibilants (Lat. *sibilantes*, hissing). On account of the hissing sound which they express, the name “sibilant” has been given to the letters *s*, *z*, *sh*, and *zh*.

Liquids (Lat. *liquidus*, flowing). This is the name given to the letters *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *ng*.

Nasals (Lat. *nasus*, nose); the name given to the three letters *n*, *m*, *ng*. These are called nasals, because in forming the sounds which they express the breath passes up the nose-passage and

escapes through the nostril. If the nose-passage is blocked by a cold, *ng* (a guttural) is sounded almost as *g* (another guttural), *n* (a dental) as *d* (another dental), and *m* (a labial) as *b* (another labial).

Note 1.—There is a further subdivision of certain consonants into Surd and Sonant (sometimes, but less accurately called, Hard and Soft, or Sharp and Flat). The consonants which can thus be paired are:—*k, g, ch, j, sh, zh, t, d, s, z, th(in), th(is), p, b, f, v, wh, w*. In all these pairs the Surd is placed first, and the Sonant second.

Note 2.—When an *intrusive consonant*, *i.e.* one not belonging to the root, is inserted into a word, the intruder is usually of the same class as the consonant going before:—

Num-b-er (Lat. *num-er-us*) ; *hum-b-le* (Lat. *hum-il-is*) ; *ten-d-er* (Lat. *ten-er*) ; *gen-d-er* (Lat. *gen-er-is*). Observe the *m* and *b* are both labials, while the *n* and *d* are both dentals.

12. Spellings of the Consonantal sounds.—We shall take each of the twenty-five sounds in the order in which their respective symbols are given in § 6:—

1. *b* : *bond* (initial), *ebb* (final), *buoy*, *cup-board*.
2. *d* : *bond*, *ladder*, *called*, *horde*, *would*.
3. *f* : *felt*, *whiff*, *phlegm*, *laugh*, *half*, *often*, *sapphire*, *lieu-tenant* (where *ieu=e*).
4. *g* : *game*, *egg*, *ghost*, *guard*.
5. *h* : *hot*, *who*.
6. *j* : *job*, *gist*, *George*, *judge*, *judgment*, *soldier*, *Greenwich*, *gaol*.
7. *k* : *kill*, *call*, *account*, *back*, *biscuit*, *quell*, *liquor*, *grotesque*, *ache*, *lough*.
8. *l* : *lake*, *kill*, *island*, *aisle*, *gazelle*, *seraglio*, *Woolwich*.
9. *m* : *mend*, *hammer*, *hymn*, *lamb*, *programme*, *phlegm*, *Hampden*, *drachm*.
10. *n* : *pin*, *inn*, *deign*, *knee*, *gnaw*, *John*, *Lincoln*, *Wednesday*, *riband*, *borne*, *Anne*, *coigne*.
11. *p* : *place*, *happy*, *steppe*, *Clapham*, *hic-cough*.
12. *r* : *rain*, *borrow*, *rhythm*, *write*, *Norwich*.
13. *s* : *self*, *kiss*, *dense*, *cell*, *dance*, *scene*, *coalesce*, *schism*, *quartz*, *sword*, *hasten*, *isthmus*, *psalm*, *crevasse*.
14. *t* : *wet*, *kettle*, *gazette*, *Thames*, *looked*, *two*, *debt*, *indict*, *receipt*, *yacht*, *caste*.
15. *v* : *vest*, *hav*, *navvy*, *of*, *nephew*, *halve*.
16. *w* : *wine*, *when*, *suave*, *choir*.
17. *y* : *yield*, *union*, *hallelujah*. French : *vignette* (*gn=ny*), *couillon*.
18. *z* : *zeal*, *fizz*, *his*, *cleanse*, *scissors*, *Xerxes*, *furze*, *Wednesday*, *Chiswick*, *Windsor*, *venison*, *czar*, *business*.
19. *ch* : *church*, *niche*, *latch*, *nature*, *question*, *righteous*, *violoncello*.
20. *ng* : *thing*, *finger*, *tongue*, *handkerchief*, *Birmingham*.
21. *th(is)* : *then*, *soothe*.
22. *th(in)* : *breath*, *Matthew*.

23. **sh**: shall, Asia, tissue, pension, moustache, fuchsia, mission, fashion, officiate, social, ocean, conscience, schedule, viatic, portion, luncheon, chaise.

24. **zh**: seizure, leisure, occasion, transition. Fr. rouge, régime, jujube (sometimes sounded as *jujube*).

25. **wh**: while (often sounded merely as *w*, except in North Britain).

One hundred and sixty-six spellings (not counting the French words) for twenty-five different sounds.

13. Same spelling with different sounds :-

c: violoncello, cat, city.

ch: ache, chaise, such, drachm (silent).

j: Jew, jujube, hallelujah.

ge: rouge, village, get.

gi: give, ginger.

ti: notion, question, transition.

s: has, gas.

sc: scene, scarce.

sch: scheme, schedule.

si: occasion, dispersion.

th: thin, this, Thames.

x: extra, example, Xerxes. Fr. ~~wa~~.

ph: nymph, nephew.

gh: ghost, laugh, hough.

qu: liquor, queen.

14. Causes of discrepancies in spelling.—In the earliest form of English every simple sound was expressed by its own particular symbol, and no sound (with very few exceptions) had more than one symbol. The spelling therefore was in the main “phonetic.” But the phonetic system was marred and eventually ruined—(a) by the mixture of French words with English consequent on the Norman Conquest; (b) the disuse of marks to denote the lengthening of vowels; (c) the loss of the Old English symbols æ and ǣ (sounded like the *a* in *man*, *mare* respectively, or like the *a* in *marry*, *Mary*), which gave the vowel *a* much more to do than it had before; (d) changes in the pronunciation both of vowels and consonants,—changes that were seldom accompanied with a change of spelling; (e) the respelling of many of our words during the Revival of Learning (A.D. 1500-1600), so as to bring them more in accordance with the classical originals: thus *vitailes* was respelt as “*victuals*” (Lat. *victus*, food); *dett* as “*debt*” (Lat. *debitum*); *dout* as “*doubt*” (Lat. *dubitare*); *sutil* as “*subtle*” (Lat. *subtilis*); (f) the influence of the accent, which was slight at first, but became more and more powerful as time went on: in unaccented syllables

the vowel is so indistinctly sounded, that sometimes we cannot tell from the sound what the vowel is.

Exercise.

(a) 1. Distinguish between *emphasis*, *accent*, *quantity*. 2. Give two instances in which words, identical in spelling, are distinguished one from another by accent. 3. "A perfect alphabet would contain a separate letter to represent every simple or elementary sound." Show that the letter *a* in English represents several simple or elementary sounds. 4. What single letters in our alphabet represent compound sounds? 5. "Our alphabet contains four redundant letters—*c, j, g, x*." Discuss this statement. 6. Write two words of one syllable, in the first of which the letter *i* represents a pure vowel sound, and in the second a diphthongal sound. 7. How do you account for the fact that the spelling of English words is often at variance with their pronunciation? 8. Give one example under each of the following to show that in some words—

- (i.) The letter *i* represents a diphthongal sound.
- (ii.) The letter *s* is written where *z* is sounded.
- (iii.) A letter is not sounded at all.

9. State and illustrate the different sounds of the letter *s*. (*Oxford and Cambridge Locals.*)

(b) 1. What consonants are redundant in the English alphabet, and in what respects is our alphabet defective in consonants? 2. The sound of *a* in *hate* is expressed in several different ways in written English (as in *bait, may, whey, weight, gaol, gauge*, etc.). Show that there are also several ways in which the sound of *e* in *me* is represented in writing. Give four true Diphthongs, four Liquids, four Sibilants, and four Labials. 4. Explain the terms *letter, diphthong, Labial, Palatal*. How many sounds has the combination *ough*? 5. Quote examples of English words containing *ei* or *ie* (four of each), and of verbs ending in *eed* or *cede* (two of each). 6. What is a *diphthong*? Give six examples, all different, of so-called diphthongs which are not really diphthongs. 7. How many *true* diphthongs have we in the English language? Quote three words as examples of each of them. (*College of Preceptors.*)

APPENDIX E.—STRUCTURE OF SENTENCE.

SECTION 1.—ORDER OF PHRASES AND CLAUSES.

1. **Importance of Order.**—To compose a good sentence one of the first things to be mastered is the art of arranging words, phrases, and clauses in their most effective setting. The three effects to be especially aimed at are—perspicuity, so that the drift of the writer may be understood at a glance,—energy or force, so that more prominence may be given to one point than to another, according to the intention of the writer,—euphony, so that the sentence may run smoothly or, if read aloud, sound

well to the ear. Now all these effects depend largely, though not exclusively, on the position of words, phrases, and clauses.

Perspicuity.—They tell him that there shall be no reforms in the slovenly methods common fifty years ago, some of which have survived to the present day, of which he does not approve.—*Church Gazette*, p. 710, April 15, 1899.

Energy.—The power of the pulpit in the United States upon all moral questions has gained as much as it has lost upon all theological issues. It is not less powerful to-day in this domain in the Republic than in Scotland, and far more so than in any other English-speaking country.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 342, April 1899.

Euphony.—It is not less powerful to-day in this domain in the Republic than in Scotland.—*Ibid.*

The perspicuity of the first example suffers from the wrong place given to the last clause *of which he does not approve*. This should have been put immediately after the word “reforms,” to which it is an adjective clause.

The energy of the second example and the euphony of the third both suffer from the wrong place given to the phrase *in his domain*. Emphasis requires that this phrase shall stand at the beginning of the sentence (one of the strongest positions), and not in the middle (the weakest of all positions). Euphony requires that the same preposition *in* shall not be repeated three times so close together. The sentence, then, should be rearranged thus:—“In this domain it is not less powerful to-day in the Republic than in Scotland.”

2. Rule of Proximity.—Every rule that has been given in ch. xii. sect. 2, on the “Position of Words,” is based upon one fundamental principle, viz. that *things which are to be thought of together must be mentioned together*, i.e. as closely together as the context or as the idiom of the language permits. This has been called the “Rule of Proximity” (Bain).

The same principle holds good for the position of qualifying phrases and subordinate clauses. A construction which violates this principle is called by the French *construction louche*, “a squinting construction”; or, to adopt the more homely English saying,—“one eye is fixed on the kettle, while the other is looking up the chimney.” A squinting sentence is almost certain to involve a loss of perspicuity, or of energy, or of euphony, and possibly of all three combined.

(a) *Noun-clause.*—A noun-clause must be placed as close as possible to the verb or noun with which it is meant to be connected in sense:—

Original order.—Mr. J. S. Chapple points out in reference to our remark last week, that with the exception of Sir G. Scott no other architect of our time has erected a cathedral, that Mr. W. Burgess erected St. Fin Barré's Cathedral at Cork in the year 1862.—*Church Times*, Dec. 23, 1897.

Corrected order.—In reference to our remark last week that with the exception of Sir G. Scott no architect of our time has erected a cathedral, Mr. J. S. Chapple points out that Mr. W. Burgess erected St. Fin Barré's Cathedral, Cork, in the year 1862.

(b) *Adverb-clause and adverbial phrase.*—An adverb-clause or adverbial phrase must be placed as close as possible to the word that it qualifies:—

Original order.—All this is meant to open the eyes of the Chinese, and to cause them to accept each and every claim that we make upon them as soon as possible.—*Daily Telegraph*, Jan. 3, 1898.

Corrected order.—All this is meant to open the eyes of the Chinese, and to cause them to accept as soon as possible each and every claim that we make upon them.

(b) *Adjective clause.*—The relative pronoun or relative adverb, by which such a clause is introduced, must be placed as close as possible to its antecedent:—

Original order.—No one could doubt how great and critical was the occasion, who observed the keen and breathless interest of Parliament when Mr. Chamberlain rose to speak.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, May 22, 1900.

Corrected order.—No one who observed the keen and breathless interest of Parliament when Mr. Chamberlain rose to speak, could doubt how great and critical was the occasion.

3. Rule of Priority.—The rule of proximity is supplemented by another—the “Rule of Priority” (Bain). According to this rule, qualifying phrases and clauses should, as far as idiom or the context allows, precede the clause or words to which they are subordinate.

The principle underlying this rule is that the mind of the reader is by this means *kept in suspense*. His interest is aroused to know what is coming, and when it does come, it comes with the greater force. The principal clause thus receives the emphasis that it ought to have as principal clause, and that it is expected to have from its position at the close of the sentence.

(1) *Ghost.* If ever thou didst thy dear father love,
Hamlet. O heaven!
Ghost. Avenge his foul and most unnatural murder.

Observe how the effect of this dialogue would have been marred if the order of the clauses had been reversed. Observe, too,

how the interest of Hamlet has been awakened by the suspensive influence of the conditional clause. This is shown by the exclamation, "O heaven!"

(2) Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels, and have not charity, I am become as sounding brass, or a tinkling cymbal.—*1 Cor. xiii. 1.*

Compare with this well-arranged sentence the following extract from Bacon, in which the limiting clause is awkwardly put last instead of first:—

A crowd is not company, and faces are but a gallery of pictures, where there is no love.

(3) Although nearly 2000 men have been dispatched from New South Wales to South Africa, the colony, owing to the large numbers now voluntarily undergoing military training, is stronger for home defence than it was before.—*Daily Graphic*, p. 9, Feb. 19, 1900.

Here the Subordinate clause "although," etc., rightly precedes the Principal, and the long phrase "owing," etc., rightly precedes the words "is stronger," which it is intended to qualify. How very awkward and feeble the sentence would have been had the order been different! and yet it would have been quite as grammatical.

The colony of New South Wales is stronger for home defence than it was before, owing to the large numbers now undergoing voluntary training, although nearly 2000 men have been dispatched to South Africa.

4. Exceptions to the rule of Priority.—The rule of Proximity, so far as we can see, is without exception: the rule of Priority not always so. It may sometimes conduce to perspicuity or to some other kind of literary merit, if a subordinate clause is placed after, instead of before, the word that it qualifies. Such exceptions, however, depend entirely upon the context, and can be decided only upon the merits of the individual case.

(1) The very landlord's agent, who has been giving you all the landlord-side of the question, *when you come to the subject of evictions*, breaks away and becomes an Irishman.—*Papers on Ireland*.

The position of the clause printed in Italics between one clause in front of it and another behind it is somewhat embarrassing, and on first reading it is not quite clear to which of these it belongs. The sentence would be improved if, in violation of the rule of Priority, we place the clause after, instead of before, the verb "breaks away."

The very landlord's agent, who has been giving you all the landlord-side of the question, breaks away when you come to the subject of evictions, and becomes an Irishman.

(2) Mr. Brodrick informed Mr. H. that the recently announced Russian loan to Persia was concluded between Russia and Persia without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, Feb. 28, 1900.

The sentence would be spoilt if, in compliance with the rule of Priority, we rearranged it thus:—

Mr. Brodrick informed Mr. H. that the recently announced Russian loan to Persia was without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government concluded between Russia and Persia.

The point of the sentence turns upon the phrase *without the knowledge of Her Majesty's Government*, and therefore it must be placed last,—the most emphatic position.

Correct or justify the order of phrases or clauses in the following, or rewrite the sentence if a mere change of order is not sufficient:—

1. The present crisis, anxious though not grave, as it certainly is, is by no means unique in our history.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, Feb. 12, 1900.

2. I endeavoured to match the spectacles agreeably to her commission, during my stay in London.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe, Dedicatory Epistle*, last para.

3. The master of the ship continued his course at full speed in thick weather, when he must have known that his vessel was in the immediate neighbourhood of the headlands, without taking any steps to verify his position.—*Finding of Court*, quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, May 12, 1899.

4. I certainly believe,—granted the certainty of a life after death, —in some penal condition, which may be called hell without violence to language.—*Church Gazette*, p. 329, Jan. 7, 1899.

5. There is a curious similarity between the yachts *Shamrock* and *Columbia*, the competitors for the America cup, in all the main points, which go to make up a good racing craft, although the designers have been working independently and in different hemispheres.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, May 15, 1899.

6. The Government undertakes to prevent death, and to relieve misery, from famine in British India at the cost of the Indian treasury, so far as organisation and effort can accomplish these ends.—Quoted in *Times Weekly*, p. iv. April 13, 1900.

7. A man does not rise to the position occupied by Mr. Balfour, with the universal approval of the country, without exciting one spark of jealousy amongst his supporters, without arousing a trace of irritation even amongst his opponents, without some very exceptional qualities.—Report of Mr. Chamberlain's Speech, *Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, May 17, 1900.

8. In France the whole system of "reading" (*i.e.* giving a MS. to some one to read and criticise) is absent, and yet the average French

publisher will not publish any rubbish submitted to him, provided the author bear the cost, as is sometimes done in England.—*Literature*, p. 164, Feb. 24, 1900.

9. The friendly reception given to our troops by the people of Bloemfontein has gone a great way to convince those radicals who were opposed to annexation on the ground of the trouble in which it would involve this country in governing the conquered states, of the groundlessness of their fears.—*The Globe*, p. 4, March 17, 1900.

10. A certain amount of practice (in shooting) is essential, even when the larder is not empty, in order that the unaccustomed hand may not fail when meat is needed.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 385, March 1900.

11. Mr. G. replied that the Government could not see their way to devoting a ship for Antarctic discovery, because there was not a plethora of able officers in the navy.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 6, March 9, 1900.

12. An opposition called the country party had been formed with Shaftesbury, Holles, and Essex for leaders in the Lords, with Russell and others for leaders in the Commons, and animated by the reviving spirit of the Commonwealth.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. ii. p. 36.

13. It is sad indeed to have to trace charges, the scattering of which broadcast through the Continent has made the blood of every true Briton boil, to legislators at home, who do not appear to realise, when they are fighting for party while all the rest are fighting for the national good, the incalculable mischief which their careless language is causing to their country.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, Feb. 22, 1900.

14. The announcement is such as to, if it were possible, still more confirm us in our resolve to do our full duty in the present emergency.—Premier's speech quoted in *Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, Feb. 22, 1900.

15. Only a few weeks ago we called the attention of the clergy and others who have to do with savings banks, or are trustees for parochial funds invested in consols, to this matter.—*Church Gazette*, p. 45, April 28, 1899.

16. The somewhat remarkable speech made yesterday by Prince Hohenlohe is regarded in political circles as an interesting exposition, being directed against France more than against Alsace-Lorraine, of Germany's actual policy, and in particular her policy towards England.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 9, Feb. 23, 1900.

17. Here the federals are under their own guns at Bulwana, and it is the position, if they intend to fight again, where a stand will probably be made.—*Ibid.* p. 9, Feb. 23, 1900.

18. Lord Salisbury made a statement in the House of Lords yesterday, which, though it only shot a canard on the wing, was of much importance.—*Ibid.* p. 9, Feb. 23, 1900.

19. In Prussia nothing goes down with the public, that is to say, there is no independence of action or thought, unless the crown or the government leads the way.—*Ibid.* Jan. 28, 1898.

20. England may be proud of the valour of her troops, of her generals, and lastly of herself, as she has known, with patience and calmness after defeat, how to wait for the hour of success.—*Ibid.* p. 10. Feb. 24, 1900.

SECTION 2.—SENTENCES PERIODIC AND LOOSE.

5. Whately's explanation of "Periodic" and "Loose."

—The following is the account given by Whately of the difference between a Periodic sentence (or Period, as it is sometimes called) and a Loose sentence. If these definitions are correct (which approximately they are), Periods to a large extent depend upon the observance of the rule of Priority, while Loose sentences are produced by violating it.

"By a Period is to be understood any sentence, whether Simple or Complex, which is so framed that the grammatical construction will not admit of a close, before the end of it; in which, in short, the meaning remains suspended, as it were, till the whole is finished."

"A Loose sentence, on the contrary, is any that is not a Period;—any, whose construction will allow of a stop, so as to form a perfect sentence, at one or more places before we arrive at the end" (WHATELY'S *Rhetoric*, p. 205, ed. 1894).

N.B.—Among the examples quoted below, the first four are given by Whately himself to illustrate his own definitions. In the sentences placed on the left side of the column, the double stroke shows where each sentence could have stopped without being grammatically incomplete. Up to that point the sentence is Periodic. In the examples given on the right side of the column, the clause or phrase, by which "the meaning remains suspended" and the sentence is thereby converted from Loose to Periodic, is indicated by Italics.

Loose.

(1) We came to our journey's end at last, || with no small difficulty, after much fatigue, through deep roads and in bad weather.

(2) The vines afforded a refreshing shade || and a delicious fruit.

(3) The world is not eternal, || nor is it the result of chance.

(4) The Romans consider religion a part of virtue, || the Jews virtue a part of religion.

(5) The essence of all art is to produce an effect on the feelings and the imagination, || not to inform the intellect nor to produce something practically useful.

(6) We do not implicitly accept all his propositions, || though there

Periodic.

(1) At last, with no small difficulty and after much fatigue, we came, through deep roads and in bad weather, to our journey's end.

(2) The vines afforded *both* a refreshing shade and a delicious fruit.

(3) The world is *neither* eternal nor the result of chance.

(4) *While* the Romans consider religion a part of virtue, the Jews consider virtue a part of religion.

(5) The essence of all art is *not* to inform the intellect nor to produce something practically useful, *but* to produce an effect on the feelings and the imagination.—*Literature*, p. 160, Feb. 24, 1900.

(6) *Though* there is much that is sensible in his arguments, we

Loose.

is much that is sensible in his arguments.

(7) A message from Lord R., bearing Saturday's date, breaks the silence, which has seemed so long and so difficult to bear || to the general public keenly anxious to know the fate of C.

(8) The Elector was an outcast, and Mansfield, the vaunted champion of protestantism, on whom aid had been wasted, lost the cause, || and with his vagabond host disgraced it.

Periodic.

do not implicitly accept all his propositions.—*Ibid.* p. 152, Feb. 17, 1900.

(7) A message from Lord R., bearing Saturday's date, breaks the silence, which to the general public, keenly anxious to know the fate of C., has seemed so long and so difficult to bear.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, Feb. 26, 1900.

(8) The Elector was an outcast, and Mansfield, the vaunted champion of protestantism, on whom aid had been wasted, not only lost, but with his vagabond host disgraced, the cause.—*GOLDWIN SMITH, United Kingdom*, vol. i. p. 472.

6. Advantages of the Period.—In point of energy the Period has in most cases the advantage over Loose sentences. When we meet with qualifying phrases or clauses, our tendency is to look forwards rather than backwards. Our interest is thus roused to know what is coming. A Loose sentence is less stimulating and often disappointing. “An unexpected continuation of a sentence, which the reader had supposed to be concluded, is apt to produce in the mind a sensation of being disagreeably balked, analogous to the unpleasant jar which is felt, when, in ascending or descending a flight of stairs, we meet with one step more than we had expected” (Whately).

While Bedford lived, though his energies were wasted in the war, he was able by his influence to keep the council, into whose hands the government fell, for the most part in the right path.—*GOLDWIN SMITH, United Kingdom*, vol. i. p. 264.

This is a perfect Period. Now see how feeble and scattered the sentence becomes, when it is made Loose.

Bedford was able by his influence to keep the council, into whose hands the government fell, for the most part in the right path, while he lived, though his energies were wasted in the war.

7. Main Test of a Period.—The main characteristic of a Period is not, as Whately has said, that the sentence is grammatically complete until the last word has been given, but that *the mind of the reader is held in suspense and his interest not allowed to flag* to the very last. However complete the grammatical construction may be at some point before the close, a sentence does not deserve the opprobrious epithet of “Loose,” so

long as the superadded clause does not produce in the mind "a sensation of being disagreeably balked." A few examples will show this:—

(1) I venture to express the conviction, which I hold very strongly, that we shall emerge from this war far stronger as a military power than when we went into it,—stronger in numbers, in armaments, and in the knowledge that we can count upon the co-operation of our colonies, and stronger above all in experience.—*Speech quoted in Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, Feb. 21, 1900.

The sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words "went into it." Is it therefore Loose, because a great deal more has been added? Certainly not. What follows is explanatory of what has gone before. Far from causing "a sensation of being disagreeably balked," it supplies a fine example of climax, in which the mind ascends from one step in the argument to another.

(2) Perhaps the discussion last night will have served its purpose, if it disposes for ever of the farrago of falsehood, innuendo, and insinuation of which we are heartily sick, constructed out of sheer malignity against a responsible minister of the crown.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 8, Feb. 21, 1900.

The sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words *served its purpose*. But the reader who has read thus far does not by any means feel that he has come to the logical end of the sentence. His curiosity is aroused to know, "why will this discussion have served its purpose?" This question is answered by the clauses that follow. Again, however, the sentence becomes grammatically complete with the words *heartily sick*. And again the curiosity of the reader is aroused to know "why are we heartily sick of it?" The answer is furnished by the long participial phrase commencing with *constructed*. The sentence is therefore a perfect Period, in which the interest of the reader is sustained to the very end.

(3) This process can only be very gradual, but it may partly be achieved, if the teacher has the needed knowledge and experience.—*Literature*, p. 147, Feb. 17, 1900.

The sentence becomes grammatically complete with the word *achieved*. But there is nothing "loose" in the construction, because the word *partly* leads the reader to expect that some explanation will be given of it, before the sentence is brought to an end.

Convert from Loose to Periodic, wherever the energy of the sentence seems to require it:—

1. Without using a harsh word, it may be fairly said that he would have lasted longer, if he had ordered his life more carefully.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 10, March 12, 1900.

2. This expenditure does not come out of the city's allowance to every Lord Mayor, as the chief magistrate bears only one-half the cost of the show, the other half being equally divided between the two sheriffs.—*Ibid.* p. 8, Feb. 12, 1900.

3. Colonel D. reports the capture of the arsenal, north-east of Tientsin, on Wednesday last, by the combined forces, with whom a British naval brigade co-operated, with a loss of four killed and fifteen wounded, including two officers.—*Ibid.* p. 8, July 2, 1900.

4. I shall beg leave to quote from a very ancient author, whose book would be regarded by our modern wits as one of the most shining tracts of morality extant, if it appeared under the name of Confucius or of any celebrated Grecian philosopher.—ADDISON, *Spectator*, No. 68, para. 2.

5. We make this protest against the enforcing of military service, not on our own behalf (as it appears probable that the contemplated measure would recognise the conscientious objections of the Society of Friends), but on behalf of our fellow-countrymen, who share our objections without sharing our exemption.—*Minute passed at Quakers Meeting*, Feb. 1900.

6. A state of general over-production or under-production would result, if all members of society acted strictly according to the advice of the economist.—Quoted in *Review of Reviews*, p. 254, March 15, 1899.

7. A bill to prohibit the importation of Irish cattle was driven through both Houses, as Clarendon says, with incredible passion, in spite of the strong remonstrances of the Irish government and of a strong opposition from the better sense of England.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. ii. p. 25.

8. Halifax was a man of a very different stamp, a philosophic statesman, an excellent political writer, broad in his views, with a mind only too well-balanced, since he could never incline to decisive action.—*Ibid.* p. 36.

9. The government defence appears to be that it would not have been justified in taking a step so calculated to precipitate hostilities, until every possible effort for a peaceful settlement had failed.—*Fortnightly Review*, March 1900, p. 353.

10. The essence of the problem lies in the injustice that a grocer who sells bad food can be punished, while against the landlord who lets bad houses no redress can be obtained, and he is even rewarded.—*Review of Reviews*, p. 263, March 1900.

11. An Act of Parliament would have been considered of doubtful authority, if not altogether invalid, if it were passed in a Parliament where the spiritual state was ignored.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 929, Feb. 1899.

12. To a borough-mongering Parliament, parliamentary reform, even the mildest, was too nauseous to be swallowed, however sugared might be the rim of the cup.—*Literature*, p. 243, April 7, 1900.

13. Somerset and his wife were brought to trial before the peers and found guilty, as Lady Somerset undoubtedly was, though the

guilt of her husband was more than doubtful.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. i. p. 452.

14. Weakness he (Charles I.) inherited from his father, and it appears, together with his likeness to James, in the portrait of him by Dobson, though not in the somewhat idealised portrait by Van Dyck.—*Ibid.* p. 469.

15. It found an organ in the press, now liberated from the censorship, though subject to an illiberal libel-law, and liable to censorial onslights by the dominant party in parliament.—*Ibid.* vol. ii. p. 157.

16. The working of democratic institutions means one long training in enlightened altruism, one continual weighing of these larger experiences on which all successful conduct of social life depends, not of the advantage of the particular act to the particular individual at the particular moment.—WEBB, *Studies in Democracy*.

SECTION 3.—UNITY OF SENTENCE.

8. **The rule of Unity.**—A sentence should deal with one main thought at a time, and not with more than one. Hence no phrase or clause should be introduced, unless it has some direct bearing upon the main point. This is known as the rule of Unity.

9. **Violations of Unity.**—The chief ways, in which the rule of Unity is liable to be broken, are shown in the following examples:—

(a) A single sentence, which, though one in form, contains more than one leading thought. Such a sentence shoul^d be broken up into as many units as there are leading thoughts.

A small detached house known as Menton Villa, on whose site the Cottage Hospital now stands, was taken on lease, and a provident dispensary was opened and carried on there, for about a year and a half, with (as one of the founders has expressed it) "only small success."—*Ealing Guardian*, p. 5, May 6, 1899.

In this rambling sentence two leading facts are expressed—(1) the establishment of a dispensary on the site named; (2) the small success with which this dispensary was carried on. We therefore subdivide it into two sentences:—

A small detached house known as Menton Villa, on whose site the Cottage Hospital now stands, was taken on lease, and a provident dispensary was opened there. This was carried on for about a year and a half, but (as one of the founders has expressed it) "with only small success."

(b) A series of little Periods coming one after another, as if each was of equal importance and each represented an isolated fact. Such Periods should be grouped to the extent required by the rule of Unity, and when this has been done, the mind of the reader experiences a sense of relief.

For some days Edward's death was kept a secret. Then Queen Jane was proclaimed. But the proclamation was received in silence. The people were unwilling to see the rightful heir excluded."—HUNTER'S *Short History of England*, p. 111.

The four full stops imply that there are four leading thoughts; whereas in reality there are only two,—the proclamation of Jane as Queen, the silence with which the proclamation was received. The four sentences should therefore be grouped into two.

A few days after Edward's death, which was kept secret for a time, Jane was proclaimed Queen. But, as the people were unwilling to see the rightful heir excluded, the proclamation was received with silence.

(c) A long parenthesis wedged into the middle of a sentence constitutes a violation of Unity. A short parenthesis is admissible, because the violation is not felt.

This ill-favoured fraternity consists of a president and twelve fellows, the choice of which (*sic*) is not confined by patent to any particular foundation (as St. John's men would have the world believe, and have therefore created a separate society within themselves), but liberty is left to elect from any school in Great Britain, provided the candidates be within the rules of the club as set forth in a table entitled the Act of Deformity, a clause or two of which I shall transmit to you.—STEELE, *Spectator*, No. 17, para. 3.

There is no harm in the parenthesis as far as the word *believe*. The rest should be cancelled, as there is no need of it. *Which* should be changed to *whom*, since by the rule of Proximity (§ 2) the Relative should be as close as possible to its antecedent. The antecedent should be *fellows*, not *fraternity*.

(d) An irrelevant phrase or clause, which ought either to have been left out altogether, or, if mentioned at all, placed in a parenthesis, but which has been attached to the main thread of the sentence, as if it were part of the theme:—

On looking back at the House of Commons as it was thirty or forty years ago, I do think that in the past, in spite of angry controversy, there was not the vulgar personality which is now sometimes heard with regret.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 250, Feb. 1898.

The Unity of this sentence is marred by the last two words. The sentence should have ended with *heard*. The regret expressed is irrelevant. But if the writer wished to give expression to this sentiment, he should have used a parenthesis instead of placing the words in the emphatic position at the close of the sentence. This position renders the sentence ambiguous; for the sentence might mean that vulgar personality is not always, but only sometimes, to be regretted. Or it might mean that the angry controversies of a former day were

not to be regretted, only the vulgar personality of the present day. There would be no breach of Unity and no consequent ambiguity, if the last clause were reworded thus :—“ which, I regret to say, is now sometimes heard.”

10. Length of a sentence.—The length of a sentence, like the size of a box, must be determined by the amount of matter to be put into it. So no rule can be laid down, that sentences must be short, or at least must not exceed a certain length. If the sense permits, it is safer to use short sentences than long ones, since long sentences are apt to become involved. But unity should not be sacrificed to shortness.

The accents of the Hebrew tongue, however harsh they might have sounded when uttered by another, had, coming from the beautiful Rebecca, the romantic and pleasing effect, which fancy ascribes to the charms pronounced by some beneficent fairy, unintelligible indeed to the ear, but from the sweetness of utterance and benignity of aspect which accompanied them, touching and affecting to the heart.—SCOTT *Ivanhoe*, chap. xxviii. para. 30.

Here is a *long* sentence, in which the unity of thought is as perfect as the rhythm of the words. How different is the effect, when the sentence is broken up and its unity destroyed !

The accents of the Hebrew tongue might have sounded harsh when uttered by another. Coming from the beautiful Rebecca, they had a romantic and pleasing effect. Fancy ascribes such effect to the charms pronounced by some beneficent fairy. Those accents were unintelligible to the ear, but touching and affecting to the heart. A sweetness of utterance and benignity of aspect accompanied them.

Subdivide, where necessary, the following, so as to give a separate Period to each leading thought :—

1. Though the times were hard for all, the country was moving along the road marked out for it by the wisdom of William the Conqueror, and as long as Archbishop Lanfranc lived, the young king (Rufus) followed his advice, and adopted the old plan of playing off the English against the Barons.—RANSOME'S *Short Hist. Eng.* p. 48, ed. 1897.

2. He (Edward III.) invaded France, but Philip wisely declined a pitched battle, and having exhausted his energy and loaded himself with debt, Edward returned the next year to England.—*Ibid.* p. 114.

3. The French fleet was formed in four lines, but Edward arranged that each ship of men-at-arms should be supported in its attack on a French ship by two vessels filled with archers, who shot down the Frenchmen on the deck ; the men-at-arms then boarded, and in this way line after line was defeated, and the ships either sunk or taken prisoners.—*Ibid.* p. 114.

4. During the insurrection the rebels had shown great hostility to John of Gaunt, who continued, however, to have much influence till 1385 ; but in that year Roger Mortimer, grandson of the Duke of

Clarence, was declared heir to the throne, which destroyed his hopes of the succession, and the next year he made an expedition to Spain to prosecute his right to the throne of Castile, which he claimed through his second wife, the elder daughter of Pedro the Cruel, and remained there till 1389.—*Ibid.* p. 129.

5. The steeds of these attendants were of Saracen origin, and consequently of Arabian descent, and their fine slender limbs, small fetlocks, their manes, and easy springing motion, formed a marked contrast with the large-jointed, heavy horses, of which the race was cultivated in Flanders and in Normandy, for mounting the men-at-arms of the period in all the panoply of plate and mail; and which, placed by the side of these Eastern coursers, might have passed for a personification of substance and shadow.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, ch. ii. Para. 8.

6. The spirit of the suffering people of France found its embodiment in Joan of Arc, whose execution left a dark stain on the English escutcheon, though her trial took place at the instance of the University of Paris, and almost all concerned in it were Frenchmen of the Burgundian party, while the belief in sorcery was the superstition of the age, and Joan owed to it her victories as well as her cruel death.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. i. p. 261.

7. Six thousand soldiers, led by the young Duke of Monmouth, under the French standard, invaded Holland, which despair saved from conquest by cutting the dykes.—*Ibid.* vol. ii. p. 33.

8. In furnishing the new hotel, which has been erected in red brick relieved with light terra-cotta dressings from the designs of Colonel E—s, comfort has not been sacrificed to splendour, but on the contrary there would seem to be a judicious blend of both.—*Daily Telegraph*, p. 7, June 7, 1899.

9. To cut a long story short, I pulled the labouring oar for a few years, and saw every class of business, and earned money enough to keep me, till I found myself man enough to sail my own ship, and I stayed in Parliament for forty years.—*Fortnightly Review*, p. 240, Feb. 1898.

10. It is also pleasant to have heard Lord Lyndhurst, when ninety years of age, the son of Copley Fielding, who was born at Boston, U.S.A., an English subject before the Independence of America, speaking on a Canadian question, and his voice ringing clearly as a bell.—*Ibid.* p. 250.

11. In this uneasy state both of his public and private life Cicero was oppressed by a new and cruel affliction, the death of his beloved daughter, Tullia, which happened soon after her divorce from Dolabella, whose manners and humours were entirely disagreeable to her.—MIDDLETON'S *Life of Cicero*.

APPENDIX F.—STRUCTURE OF PARAGRAPH.

1. **Theme of paragraph.**—The unit of composition ~~next~~ above a sentence is the paragraph. A paragraph consists of a series of sentences all bearing upon some main fact, and connected with one another in various ways by unity of purpose.

The main fact thus explained, illustrated, and commented on is called the **theme**.

2. Unity of paragraph.—Unity is as necessary in a paragraph as in a sentence, and has practically the same meaning for the one as for the other. It means that the paragraph must deal with *one subject at a time*. It “implies a sustained purpose, and forbids digressions and irrelevant matter” (Bain).

The unity of a paragraph is or ought to be protected by the theme; for the paragraph ought not to go beyond what the scope of the theme allows. The sentence embodying the theme holds the same kind of relation to the other sentences of the paragraph, that the principal clause of a complex sentence holds to the subordinate clauses. As the several clauses of a complex sentence are combined together in construction by conjunctions and relative pronouns, so it frequently happens that the several sentences of which a paragraph is composed are combined together in sense (though they are separated in construction), by words of reference, demonstrative phrases, collateral allusions, and the various other devices of sentence-arrangement.

3. Length of paragraph.—What has been said about the length of a sentence (App. E, § 10) applies no less to the length of a paragraph. No rule can be laid down for determining how long or how short a paragraph should be. The length of a paragraph, like that of a sentence, depends upon the amount of matter to be put into it; and the amount of matter depends chiefly upon the breadth of scope permitted by the theme, or at least by the mode of stating the theme.

It rests with the writer himself to make the scope of the theme as broad or as narrow as he thinks fit in any particular case. “The only general principle that can be laid down is to make the divisions at the larger breaks; and so there may be sometimes a doubt in the application of the rule. But when a paragraph is allowed to become much protracted, the reader loses the sense of any unity of purpose in it, and the break, when it comes, is of little use. More rarely, the opposite extreme is met with the custom of writing in short paragraphs—of one, two, or three sentences. The object in this case is to give a look of greater importance to each individual remark; the effect, however, is to produce a disjointed style, and largely to nullify the paragraph-division by reducing it nearly to the level of the sentence” (Bain).

Note.—What has been quoted from Bain is true as a general rule, and may be safely acted on in ordinary cases. Sometimes, however, there is a distinct advantage in placing a single sentence in a paragraph of its own. For example, in expository treatises a single-sentence-paragraph, expressing some comprehensive fact or principle, on which a great deal of future comment or explanation depends, makes more impression and is more easily remembered than a longer paragraph would be. No writer has employed this device more frequently or with greater success than Bain himself. In narrative composition, too, the same device, if rarely resorted to, produces a great rhetorical effect. In a paragraph of 22 lines and 11 sentences Goldwin Smith (*United Kingdom*, ch. i. p. 15) dilates upon the weakness of England at the time when Harold, the son of Godwin, was raised to the throne. Then follows a telling paragraph consisting of only six words: "The weakness tempted a mighty robber." This short paragraph is all that the author gives by way of introducing the subject of the conquest of England by William, Duke of Normandy.

4. **Positions of the theme.**—There is no strict rule as to what the position of the theme should be: it might be at the beginning of the paragraph, or somewhere in the middle, or at the close. A theme given in the first sentence can be repeated in other words in the last or elsewhere, if such repetition is found useful for driving a point home, or for summing up what has gone before, or for any other rhetorical purpose.

(a) The beginning of the paragraph is the most natural position for the theme, and in point of fact this is the position more commonly assumed than any other. The opening sentence, standing as it does at the head of all the rest, is the first to arrest the reader's attention; and from the prominent place that it holds, it is expected to furnish a clue to what is to follow. "The opening sentence," says Bain, "unless obviously preparatory, is expected to indicate the scope of the paragraph."¹

(1) *Scarcely had the English kingdom been founded, when upon it swooped the Dane. (2) Kinsman to the Saxon, *he* was, like *him* in his early estate, a sea-rover, a heathen, a marauder; his raven was the bird of slaughter and rapine. (3) *He* had a wild Scandinavian religion of warfare and destruction, with a paradise of alternate combat and wassail in Odin's hall. (4) *His* heathen rage was specially directed against the church and monastery. (5) Christianity, *on the other hand*, in the absence of a strong feeling of patriotism, was the bond and rallying cry of national defence. (6) *In this way* it made up for anything it might have done by its asceticism or quietism to enervate or disarm, etc.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. i. p. 11.

¹ In this and the following examples the sentence containing the theme is indicated by an asterisk, and words of reference or allusion by Italics. To facilitate comment each sentence has been numbered.

Enough has been quoted to show that the first sentence, which contains the theme—"the swooping of the Dane on the Saxon"—stamps its character on all the sentences that follow. Sentences (2), (3), (4) show what kind of man the Dane was. Sentences (5) and (6) show what kind of moral force (distinct from patriotism) the Saxon could bring to bear against him.

(b) Sometimes the theme is not given till towards the middle or even at the close of the paragraph. In this case the previous sentences are merely preparatory, leading up to the theme by degrees. Several purposes may be served by this arrangement. The intention of the writer may be to keep the reader's interest in suspense, or it may be his desire to lead the reader's mind by degrees to some conclusion, the full force of which could not have been perceived without some indication of the preparatory stages. An example of this latter process occurs in the following:—

(1) The king cannot be blamed for determining that Monmouth should suffer death. (2) Every man who heads a rebellion against an established government stakes his life on the event. (3) *He* had declared against *his uncle* a war without quarter. (4) In the manifesto put forth at Lyme, James had been held up to execration as an incendiary, as an assassin who had strangled one innocent man and cut the throat of another, and lastly as the poisoner of his own brother. (5) To spare an enemy, who had not scrupled to resort to such extremities, would have been an act of rare, perhaps of blamable, generosity. (6) *But to see him and not to spare him* was an outrage on humanity and decency. (7) * *This outrage* the king resolved to commit. (8) The arms of the prisoner were bound behind him with a silken cord; and thus secured *he* was ushered into the presence of the implacable *kinsman* whom he had wronged.—MACAULAY, *Hist. of England*, chap. v.

The theme of the paragraph—"the outrage on humanity and decency" committed by James—is reserved for sentence (7), the last but one in the paragraph. Sentence (8) is in continuation of sentence (7), and adds a great deal to its force by mentioning one or two particulars as to the manner in which the outrage was perpetrated. All the sentences that precede sentence (7) are intended to lead the mind of the reader step by step to a just appreciation of "the outrage which the king resolved to commit." Sentence (1), which heads the paragraph, stands (as it should do in such a case) next in importance to sentence (7): it lays down the proposition that James cannot be blamed for determining that Monmouth should die,—an admission which appears to concede a great point in James's favour, and thus convinces the reader that the author's estimate of James is not

dictated by prejudice. Sentences (2), (3), (4) enlarge upon this proposition, giving one after another the different reasons for which, in the opinion of the writer, Monmouth deserved to die. Sentence (5) goes a step further, and asserts that, far from blaming James for sentencing Monmouth to death, we should be rather inclined to blame him if he had spared his life. Then comes the climax expressed in sentence (6), "but to see him, and not to spare him, was an outrage on humanity." By this time the reader's mind is fully prepared for the theme announced in sentence (7)—"this outrage the king resolved to commit."

Theme usually placed in the opening sentence.—This is a point of some importance, and deserves more than a passing notice. "In the majority of cases," says Bain, "the paragraphs open with some broad statement that indicates the general nature of what follows." So much importance does he attach to the principle of stating the theme in the opening sentence, that he calls it a "Paragraph Law" (*Rhetoric and Composition*, Part I. p. 110). He takes as his example the introduction to Macaulay's *History of England*. On this he writes a copious comment, of which the following is the drift:—

The opening sentence of the *first* paragraph is this:—"I purpose to write the history of England from the accession of King James the Second down to a time which is within the memory of men still living." This (as it happens) is too wide a theme for the sentences that follow: it is the theme of the entire work, and for expository purposes could well have been placed in a paragraph by itself at the head of the volume. The sentences that follow are chiefly a summary of the steps that led to the consolidation and extension of England's power; and these could well have been placed in a paragraph of their own under the heading of a theme less comprehensive than that quoted.

The opening sentence of the *second* paragraph runs thus:—"Nor will it be less my duty faithfully to record disasters mingled with triumphs, and great national crimes and follies far more humiliating than any disaster." Under the heading of this theme the historian very appropriately gives a broad sketch of the disasters and crimes which it will be his duty to describe in the course of his work.

The opening sentence of the *third* paragraph runs thus:—"Yet, unless I greatly deceive myself, the general effect of this chequered narrative will be to excite thankfulness in all religious minds and hope in the hearts of all patriots."—A very fitting introduction to what follows, where the author shows by a series of illustrations that the nation has progressed much more than it has declined.

The opening sentence of the *fourth* paragraph runs thus:—"I should very imperfectly execute the task which I have undertaken if I were merely to treat of battles and sieges, of the rise and fall of administrations, of intrigues in the palace, and of debates in the parliament."—A suitable introduction to the remarks that follow, in which he says that an essential part of his task will be to give the history of the people and the changes in their thoughts and mode of life.

The opening sentence of the *fifth* and last paragraph in the introduction is this:—"The events which I propose to relate form only a single act of a great and eventful drama extending through ages, and must be very imperfectly understood, unless the plot of the preceding acts be well known." This is fitly followed by two sentences showing how he proposes to deal with that period of our history which preceded the accession of James the Second.

This method of making the opening sentence indicate the general nature of the contents of the paragraph has, we find, been widely practised by the best writers. We open at random *Prose Idylls* by Charles Kingsley at p. 190, and read as follows:—(1) "At Toulouse—or rather on leaving it to go eastward—you become aware that you have passed into a fresh region." Then comes a series of sentences describing the change. (2) "The peculiarity of the district is its gorgeous colouring." This peculiarity is set forth by a series of sentences that follow. (3) "As for their industry, it is hereditary." The reasons why the industry of the inhabitants has become hereditary are given in the succeeding sentences. (4) "The special culture of the country—more and more special as we run eastward—is that of the mulberry, the almond, and the olive." All that follows in the same paragraph exemplifies this general statement.

This "paragraph law," as Bain terms it, is not uniformly observed throughout the essay from which we have quoted, but uniformly enough to show that those who make the best authors their models will do well to bear it in mind.

5. Unity of sentence containing theme.—If the opening sentence is the one usually adopted for expressing the theme, it is obviously of great importance that this sentence shall possess the merit of unity: otherwise the paragraph itself will appear to lack unity, even if it does not lack it in fact, and will seem more disjointed than it need be or than it ought to be.

We notice some such defect as this in the following paragraph, the first sentence of which contains two leading thoughts besides the theme itself. In fact, the theme as there given is so buried in extraneous matter, that until it has been pulled out and explicitly stated in a sentence of its own, we hardly perceive on first reading that it is there.

(1), (2), (3). *He rode, not a mule, like his companion, but a strong hackney for the road, to save his gallant war-horse, which a squire led behind, fully accoutred for battle, with a chamfron or plaited head-piece upon his head, having a short spike projecting from the front. (4) On one side of the saddle hung a short battle-axe richly inlaid with Damascene carving; on the other the rider's plumed head-piece and hood of mail, with a long two-handed sword used by the chivalry of the period. (5) A second squire held aloft his master's lance, from the extremity of which fluttered a small banderole or streamer, bearing a cross of the same form as that embroidered upon

his cloak. (6) He also carried his small triangular shield, broad enough at the top to protect the breast, and from thence diminishing to a point. (7) It was covered with a scarlet cloth, which prevented the device from being seen.—SCOTT'S *Ivanhoe*, chap. ii. para. 6.

The first part of the paragraph might be rewritten thus:—

(1) *To save his war-horse he rode, not a mule, *like his companion*, but a strong hackney, and was attended on the road by two squires, to each of whom a separate service had been assigned. (2) *The first* led the war-horse behind its master. (3) The gallant steed was fully accoutred for battle, with a chamfron or plaited head-piece upon its head, that had a short spike projecting from the front. (4) On one side of the saddle hung a short battle-axe richly inlaid with Damascene carving; on the other the master's plumed head-piece and hood of mail, with a long two-handed sword used by the chivalry of the period. (5) *The second* squire held aloft his master's lance, etc.

The paragraph as thus revised may be analysed thus. The theme in sentence (1) is expressed in the form of a compound sentence, the first clause of which connects the paragraph with the one preceding it by the words of reference *like his companion*, while the second clause expresses the main point (which is only implied in the original), that the knight was accompanied on the road by two squires, each of whom had a special work to do. After this the analysis is clear. Sentence (2) shows the nature of the function assigned to one of the squires, viz. the leading of the war-horse. Sentences (3) and (4) give details as to the manner in which the war-horse was accoutred. Sentence (5) shows the nature of the function assigned to the other squire—how he held aloft his master's lance. Sentence (6) shows how he carried his master's small triangular shield. Sentence (7) gives some farther description of the shield.

6. Theme not always expressed.—If the theme is implied rather than expressed, it does not follow that the paragraph is deficient in unity. The following is an example:—

(1) The companion of the church dignitary was a man past forty—thin, tall, strong, and muscular; an athletic figure, which long fatigue and constant exercise seemed to have left none of the softer part of the human form. (2) *His* head was covered with a scarlet cap, faced with fur—of that kind which the French call *mortier* from its resemblance to the shape of an inverted mortar. (3) The expression of *his* face was calculated to impress a degree of awe, if not of fear, upon strangers. (4) High features, naturally strong and powerfully expressive, had been burnt almost into Negro blackness by constant exposure to the tropical sun, and might in their ordinary state be said to slumber after the storm of passion had passed away; but the projection of the veins of the forehead, the readiness with which the upper lip quivered upon the slightest emotion, plainly intimated that the tempest might

be again and easily awakened. (5) *His* keen, piercing dark eyes told in every glance of difficulties subdued and dangers dared, and seemed to challenge opposition to *his* wishes.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*, chap. ii. para. 4.

Where then (it will be asked) is the theme of such a paragraph? The answer is, the theme is implied, not expressed. The theme is “a description of the companion of a certain church dignitary,” and this is implied in the collection of sentences, in which the different items of description are conveyed. The first sentence is about the man’s age, stature, and general appearance; the second about his head-dress; the third about the expression of his face; the fourth about his complexion; the fifth about his eyes, etc. Not only is there unity in every sentence, but unity in the paragraph as a whole.

7. Words of reference not necessary to union of sentences.—It was stated in § 2 that “the several sentences of which a paragraph is composed are often combined together in sense by words of reference, demonstrative phrases, and other devices of sentence-arrangement.”

Sometimes, however, sentences are placed side by side in simple succession without having any word or phrase of reference to bind them together. This does not necessarily impair the unity of the paragraph. By the rule of Proximity (see App. E, § 2) the mere fact of juxtaposition shows that the sentences are to be thought of together; and if the mind can readily perceive their connection, there is no need to signify this by the use of connectives or by words of reference. The following is an example:—

(1) *The Commonwealth perished, but with it by no means perished all the political fruits of the Revolution. (2) The engines of the first Charles’ arbitrary government, which the Long Parliament had swept away, the star chamber, the court of high commission, the council of the north, the stannaries court, were not restored. (3) The privy council no more dared to usurp the legislative powers of Parliament. (4) Ship-money was not revived. (5) There were to be no more benevolences or forced loans; nor were taxes to be imposed without a vote of the representatives of the nation. (6) What the Government hereafter did in the way of irregular exactation it had to do by fraud or sufferance, not by any exertion of the prerogative.—GOLDWIN SMITH, *United Kingdom*, vol. ii. p. 9.

Here is a succession of six sentences, put together in the same paragraph, but not connected by any word or words of reference. The last five, it will be seen, are subordinate in sense to the first. It is the theme contained in the first sentence which binds them together, and no other link is necessary.

8. The concluding sentence.—It was shown in § 4 that the opening sentence is the most natural position for the theme; and that what is stated in the opening sentence is sometimes restated in other words in the concluding sentence. Even when no such restatement is made, it adds to the energy of the paragraph if the concluding sentence is made to contain some brief comment on what has gone before—or a summing up of the paragraph as a whole—or something that will make the reader feel that the paragraph is closed.

(1) *Turgenev was a writer of sorrows; almost without exception his stories are sad reading. (2) We cannot be surprised. (3) For years he lived in exile, watching hope after hope sink in the gloom. (4) Failure was stamped on every phase of Russian existence. (5) The emancipation of the serfs failed to accomplish his desires, the progressives failed to fulfil his hopes. (6) He was misunderstood and reviled by friend and foe. (7) Like the hero of Gogol's *Dead Souls*, harsh was his destiny and bitterly did he feel his loneliness. (8) Towards the end of his life he suffered, too, the most exquisite of physical agonies. (9) It was then that he wrote those remarkable *Poems in Prose*, which are unlike anything in Russian literature, and also *The Song of Triumphant Love*, *Clara Miltsch*, *Phantoms*, and *The Dream*, those weird and wonderful stories of anguish and horror. (10) His swan song was penned in June 1882. "In days of doubt, in days of dreary musings on my country's fate, thou alone art my stay and support—mighty, true, free Russian speech! But for thee, how not fall into despair seeing all that is done at Rome? But who can think that such a tongue is not the gift of a great people?" (11) It was, at least, the gift of a very great writer.—*Literature*, p. 255, March 31, 1900.

The theme is contained in sentence (1), "Turgenev was a writer of sorrows." All the sentences that follow, except the last, exemplify this leading fact. The last sentence does not repeat the theme, but it contains a comment on all the intermediate sentences as well as on the theme itself. The reader feels in perusing it that the paragraph is closed, and that a new subject may be taken up in the paragraph that is to follow.

9. Parallel construction.—Lastly, we must allude briefly to what has been called "the Rule of Parallel Construction." The rule has been stated thus:—

"When several consecutive sentences iterate or illustrate the same idea, they should, as far as possible, be formed alike" (Bain).

(1) *This old practice (the levying of ship-money) it was now determined, after a long interval, not only to revive, but to extend. (2) Former princes had raised ship-money only in time of war; it was

now exacted in a time of profound peace. (3) Former princes, even in the most perilous wars, had raised ship-money only along the coasts; it was now exacted from the inland shires. (4) Former kings had raised ship-money only for the maritime defence of the country; it was now exacted by the admission of the Royalists themselves, not with the object of maintaining a navy, but of furnishing the king with supplies, which might be increased at his discretion to any amount and expended at his discretion for any purpose.

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Sentence (1) contains the theme,—the king's determination to revive and extend the levying of ship-money. Then comes a series of parallel sentences, all bearing upon the theme. Each sentence expresses a telling contrast,—the first between the occasions on which the tax was levied (sentence 2), the second between the parts of the country to which it was applied (sentence 3), and the third between the objects for which it was levied (sentence 4). The three sentences are formed alike, the principal subject and the principal predicate having in each sentence the same place allotted to it.

In the following example the rule of parallel construction is observed in all but sentence (4), where the contrast expressed by the writer puts the subject in the wrong place:—

(1) *The most striking characteristic of the poetry of Milton is the extreme remoteness of the associations by means of which it acts on the reader. (2) Its effect on the reader is produced not so much by the ideas which it directly conveys, as by other ideas which are connected with them. (3) *He* electrifies the mind through conductors. (4) The most unimaginative man must understand the Iliad; Homer gives him no choice, but takes the whole on himself, and sets his images in so clear a light that it is impossible to be blind to them. (5) *Milton* does not give a finished picture, a play for a mere passive listener. (6) *He* sketches and leaves others to fill up the outline; *he* strikes the key-note, and expects his hearers to make out the melody.

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To make the parallelism perfect, we might rewrite sentence (4) as follows:—"The Iliad must be understood by the most unimaginative man: Homer gives him no choice," etc. In this way the Iliad and afterwards Homer as principal subject is set in contrast with Milton. Sentence (1) contains the theme. Sentence (2) reiterates the theme in other words. Sentence (3) illustrates the theme by a metaphor. Sentence (4) enforces the theme by a contrast. Sentences (5) and (6) illustrate the theme by metaphors drawn from painting and music.

We give one more example, selected from Mr. Jerome's recent book of humour called, *Three Men on the Bummel*:—

(1) Shakspeare and Milton may have done their little best to spread acquaintance with the English tongue among the less favoured inhabitants of Europe. (2) Newton and Darwin may have rendered their language a necessity among educated and thoughtful foreigners. (3) Dickens and Ouida may have helped still further to popularise it. (4) "But the man who has spread the knowledge of English from Cape St. Vincent to the Ural Mountains is the Englishman who, unable or unwilling to learn a single word of any language but his own, travels, purse in hand, into every corner of the Continent. (5) One may be shocked at his ignorance, annoyed at his stupidity, angry at his presumption. (6) "But the practical fact remains; he it is that is anglicising Europe. (7) For him the Swiss peasant tramps through the snow on winter evenings to attend the English class open in every village. (8) For him the coachman and the guard, the chambermaid and the laundress, pore over their English grammars and colloquial phrase-books. (9) For him the foreign shopkeeper and merchant send their sons and daughters in their thousands to study in every English town. (10) For him it is that every foreign hotel and restaurant keeper adds to his advertisement: "Only those with a fair knowledge of English need apply."

Two sets of parallel constructions, the first consisting of sentences (1), (2), (3), (4), and the second of sentences (7), (8), (9), (10), are here presented in the same paragraph. The theme of the paragraph is first given in sentence (4) describing the character of the man who is spreading the English language throughout Europe. It is not poets like Shakspeare and Milton who are doing this (sentence 1), nor men of science like Newton and Darwin (sentence 2), nor novelists like Dickens and Ouida (sentence 3), but the common English tourist who knows no language except his own, but pays his way and pays liberally (sentence 4, the theme). In all these four sentences the parallelism of construction is admirably preserved. After the contrast expressed in sentence (4), we have a temporary break in the continuity of the argument, and with it, as we might justly expect, a break in the rhythm of the construction (sentence 5). Then (to strike the point home) the theme is repeated once more in sentence (6): "he it is that is anglicising Europe." From this point we have a second series of sentences (consisting of 7, 8, 9, 10), in all of which the parallelism, though in a different form, is as admirably preserved as in the first series. In this paragraph the author proves himself to be as great a master of style as he is of humour.

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